

Recreation and the Schools

RECREATION

Guides to Effective
Practices in
Leisure Education
and Community Recreation
Sponsorship

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and the
SCHOOLS

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Preface

This book is concerned with the dramatic fact that leisure—the availability of unobligated time—has become more and more a central focus of modern life, in the United States and throughout the Western world. The provision of organized programs of community recreation is today a recognized responsibility of local, county, state, and federal government, as well as of voluntary or semipublic agencies, industry, religious, and labor organizations.

Since public recreation must be paid for by the taxpayer in every case, the question has risen, under what administrative auspices is the recreation tax dollar most wisely spent? On this point, there has been a heated controversy in recent years. In a considerable number of communities and education districts, the public schools have assumed the task of sponsoring or co-sponsoring local recreation programs. More and more professional recreation leaders and administrators have come to see this as an undesirable trend, providing inadequate services and undercutting recreation as an independent, essential public service.

Which point of view is correct? The author's conclusions will disappoint ardent protagonists on each side, for he proposes no single solution.

A careful analysis of a large number of representative school-sponsored recreation programs reveal many to be extremely effective in providing diversified, attractive leisure activities on a community-wide basis. On the other hand, a considerable portion of those programs examined represent only half-hearted and perfunctory attempts to meet the limited recreation needs of children or youth, on a seasonal basis. The factors which seem to operate in this situation include the size of the community or school district, the degree of conviction held by the school administrators and members of the community as to the importance of recreational service and its linkage to education, the nature of support for the school sponsorship function by state law and muni-

cipal ordinances, and the presence of adequate taxing powers for the financial support of recreation.

A number of guides are briefly summarized here, which govern the role of the school with relation to community recreation.

1. When community agencies other than the school are primarily responsible for the conduct of public recreation programs, educational authorities should cooperate to the fullest degree possible by making facilities (school gymnasiums, auditoriums, art and music rooms, athletic fields, and playgrounds) available for community use. This can best be done when school buildings and outdoor areas are planned at the outset for *dual* use, surely the most economical and sensible plan.

2. When the school takes on the responsibility for conducting public recreation programs, it must do so with the recognition that this is not a second-class or minor responsibility but an important area of social service. *It must also recognize that while recreation shares many important objectives with education, and involves many of the same activities, the two are not identical, but have different philosophies, and administrative and leadership practices.*

3. The school that sponsors recreation must therefore make every effort to obtain well qualified recreation personnel, specifically trained in this field, and to give them status comparable to educational professionals with similar levels of responsibility. In addition, the school should function as other agencies in the recreation field do, making use of advisory commissions that represent community-wide thinking and needs, being involved in professional recreation and social welfare organizations and working closely with other civic agencies.

4. The assumption of responsibility for recreation by the school cannot be a matter of immediate expediency, but should involve long-term cooperative planning. Particularly in larger metropolitan areas, where it is likely that other agencies, such as recreation or park and recreation departments, exist, it is essential that there be thoughtful and thorough coordination of services and functions.

5. No matter what the sponsoring agency, the school has the inescapable responsibility for educating its students for the most constructive and creative use of leisure time. This can best be achieved by integrating all forms of instruction and co-curricular activity with leisure opportunities and available recreation services, so that the student learns to use his time fruitfully and in those forms of leisure activity which

contribute meaningfully to his personal well-being and to the welfare of the community at large.

Much of the specific information regarding practices and attitudes of school administrators, municipal recreation directors, school recreation departments, and recreation educators is derived from five extensive surveys carried out by the author in 1962 and 1963. Many references to these surveys appear throughout the book, usually identified as to source, although not always so, where the information given appears to be of a personal or provocative nature. Full tabulations of these investigations appear in the appendix.

The author wishes to express his deep appreciation to the following individuals: John Zauhar, Charles Bernardo, and John Meakins, graduate students at Teachers College, Columbia University, and Ellen Finn and Jeanne Le Clerc, undergraduate students at Hunter College in New York, all of whom participated in his research; Professor James L. Malfetti, Chairman of the Department of Health Education, Physical Education and Recreation at Teachers College, and Mrs. Mabel Montgomery, secretary of the department, both of whom generously encouraged and assisted him; George Butler who, before his retirement as research director of the National Recreation Association, consulted with him in the design of the research study; Professor Harlan Metcalf of Cortland State College and Richard Westgate, who gave the author the opportunity to present some of his findings at national and regional meetings of the American Recreation Society and National Recreation Association—experiences which helped him view a number of his findings in a more critical light; Professor John L. Hutchinson, formerly of Columbia University and now at San Francisco State College, who was the author's major advisor during his graduate study in recreation at Teachers College, and who has been a leading figure in professional efforts to promote the role of the school in community recreation; Dr. John Merkley of the Youth Services Division of the Los Angeles Schools, who stimulated his thinking in this field at an early point; all those who responded to the five major studies, or contributed helpful information at other points; and, finally, to his wife Anne and children Lisa and Andy, who cheerfully permitted their leisure interests and family recreational activities to conform to the dictates of his writing schedule.

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*Leisure and Recreation in Modern
Society*

Now we stand on the threshold of an age that will bring leisure to all of us, more leisure than all the aristocracies of history, all the patrons of art, all the captains of industry and kings of enterprise ever had at their disposal. . . . What shall we do with this great opportunity? In the answers that we give to this question the fate of our American civilization will unfold.¹

A. WHITNEY GRISWOLD

IF SOMEONE HAD referred to leisure as a key to the future of our civilization 100 years ago, few philosophers, statesmen, or educators would have taken the remark seriously. Leisure—the availability of unobligated time—through the history of mankind and until the present century has been possessed by only a tiny percentage of people, usually the powerful and wealthy landed classes. Free of the compulsion to labor or engage in enterprise, their time was freely spent in travel, entertainment, scholarly pursuits, the arts, sports or gaming, or appropriate forms of governmental service. For the mass of humanity in the Western world, leisure did not exist in significant amount until several decades of the Industrial Revolution had passed.

For some, even today, it is difficult to see how our greatly expanded and steadily growing amount of uncommitted time poses a problem. The exact nature of this problem, and its relation to the educational system of the United States, is the essential theme of this book.

The Meaning of Leisure

Let us define our terms more sharply. Leisure, in the present context, is that portion of time in our lives which is free, non-obligatory, or discretionary. It excludes time which is devoted to such survival activities as work, eating, or sleeping, although each of these *may* be approached in a leisurely fashion. It does not encompass time devoted to work-connected activities, such as study for advancement or travel to and from one's work. It is time about which one has a clear choice. It is not necessarily time spent in the pursuit of pleasure; that is, one may carry out household chores or various forms of community activity during leisure.

Leisure tends to appear at certain times. Children have a great deal of it and so do retired adults. Leisure comes at the end of the working day for most people, over the weekend, and at vacation periods during the year. At these times, one has the choice to do nothing, become involved in a task or activity which has a degree of compulsion about it, or engage in recreation.

The Meaning of Recreation

Recreation is viewed here as any activity or pursuit which is voluntarily chosen by the participant within his leisure time, with the primary motivation of achieving personal pleasure, and with a minimum of other hoped-for goals or compulsions surrounding it. Clearly, when we refer to recreation as activity carried on for its own sake, it is difficult to ignore all the varied pressures one faces in making leisure choices. There is a sense of community obligation, an aura surrounding popular or prestigious activities, an awareness of saving money in accomplishing household tasks oneself. One may have a feeling of family responsibility in planning certain leisure activities, such as picnics or outings, and undoubtedly some who participate in physical recreation do so with a dutiful sense of "keeping fit." In recognizing that a number of such extrinsic purposes or pressures may surround any leisure activity, it is necessary to measure the degree of challenge within the activity itself and the amount of personal enjoyment received by the participant, in order to determine whether it truly deserves the name of recreation.

A term which has frequently been associated with recreation is "play." This may refer to recreational pursuits in general, as in the phrase "the world of play." It may also be used to describe the specific act of carrying on certain recreational activities; they are played.

The word is derived from the Anglo Saxon *plega*, meaning a game or sport, battle or skirmish. It suggests both a kind of activity and a spirit or attitude about participation. An activity at which one plays usually is characterized by an internal structure involving competition or challenge. It has a set of rules, frequently a ritual surrounding its performance, and, as Huizinga has pointed out, an innate seriousness. At the same time, to "play around" or to be "playful" suggests that one is not serious in purpose; one is amusing oneself and possibly teasing others (although, of course, the sportsman or games-player is frequently in deadly earnest).

Play is frequently referred to as being part of the world of children and thus somewhat casual, unstructured, and exploratory, although not purposeless. On the other hand, recreation is usually

viewed as being more deliberately planned and purposeful, more sustained and repetitive, and as more of an adult activity.

In addition to this distinction, the word play suggests a rather limited range of activities, usually of a physical nature. It is not an appropriate designation for many pursuits which would normally be part of one's recreation, such as travel, reading, concert-going, having hobbies, or indulging in craft activities. Therefore, the word "recreation" has come into more common usage, and will be used throughout this text, with the exception of a few quotations or historical references to play.

In considering recreation, an extremely broad range of possible characteristics must be recognized:

1. What one person views as recreational may not be so for another person. Indeed, an activity may be recreational for an individual at a given time and place, and not in another.

2. Recreation may be the most trivial and unimportant of pursuits, or it may involve serious dedication and be on the highest level of purpose and intensity.

3. Recreation may involve a single casual episode, or it may continue as a deeply satisfying activity throughout a lifetime.

4. Recreation may be passive, both physically and mentally, or may involve extremely active participation on a variety of levels.

5. Recreation may be completely solitary; it may also involve small groups or large masses of people.

6. Recreation may be socially constructive and serve important personal and social needs, or it may represent degrading, time-wasting, or even antisocial or criminal forms of activity.

Each of these possibilities exist. So great is the potential for leisure involvement, and so wide the range of choice, that there are serious social implications in the kinds of choices which are made. Involved in these choices, which are made every day by millions of people, are the economic and social well-being of communities, states and regions, the total value structure of the nation, and the emotional and physical health of each individual in the society. These are heavy stakes, indeed.

What, actually, is the scope of leisure and recreational involvement today? What amount of leisure time do we have, and how do we spend it? Let us answer these questions first, and then consider the important problems of values and outcomes.

AMOUNTS OF LEISURE

The source of our increased leisure time is obvious. It stems essentially from the technological revolution which has made it possible for industrial workers to create more goods in less time and with less effort. Accompanying this has been a social revolution which has brought about child labor laws, a shorter work week, longer weekends and paid vacations, earlier and longer retirement, and pension plans and other forms of social insurance which make it possible for millions of older citizens to spend their years of retirement with a degree of financial security.

The work week of the American industrial worker, for example, has moved from an average of about 66 hours a week in 1850 to about 40 hours a week in 1946. The United Automobile Workers, the Steelworkers, and other major unions have pressed vigorously in recent years for a 35-hour week—a goal already achieved by the International Ladies Garment Workers Union. In 1962, a contract was actually signed by construction electrical workers in New York City for a 25-hour week. While, in practice, these workers continue to work five to ten hours a week of overtime, the trend is unmistakable. We are moving steadily toward a 35- and after that, a 30-hour industrial work week and possibly, as in some industries today, a four-day week.

In terms of retirement, in 1950 there were over 12 million people in the United States who were 65 years of age and over—about four times as many as in 1900. Wolfbein points out that during the first 50 years of the century, the average number of years spent by men in retirement has doubled, and the anticipation is that it will triple by 2,000 A.D.²

In 1963, a report by the Office of Manpower, Automation, and Training of the United States Department of Labor pointed out that improved Social Security benefits and private pension plans have resulted in a striking decline of work-life expectancy; men are retiring earlier. In 1940, 70 out of 1,000 men 64 years of age left the labor force within a year. By 1950, the figure was 83. By 1960, it had climbed to 234—almost a three-fold increase in ten years.

Joseph Prendergast, executive director of the National Recreation Association, has written:

It is my belief that in the next century the central fact in the life of every individual and of the nation will be the immense amount of free time available to everyone. The average American already has more leisure hours than working hours in a year. A conservative calculation gives about 2,175 leisure hours compared to 1,960 hours of paid work.³

Similarly, Leo Cherne, executive director of the Research Institute of America, made estimates for *Life* magazine by projecting population and consumer trends from 1959 to 1975. He estimated that, by the latter year, more Americans (230 million) would have more money (average family income rising from \$5,000 to \$7,500) and more time to spend it (15 per cent fewer work hours and 50 per cent more holidays). In line with these predictions, Cherne writes:

With 45% more young people and 25% more old people than today, schools will be running on night and day schedules and spare-time pursuits will boom astronomically. With so much time and cash people will turn to cultural diversions like painting and amateur theatre and hobbies as costly and complex as home astronomy and making stained glass.⁴

Not only has much more time become available, but modern forms of technology, such as the washing machine, the dishwasher, preprepared and frozen foods, and commercial domestic services have freed homemakers of much of the drudgery that was theirs in the past. Clearly, the opportunities for leisure are tremendous today and are growing steadily.

In addition to these factors which are responsible for the increased availability of leisure time, certain other societal trends have created a strong urge to participate in recreational activities and circumstances which make it possible.

1. *Urbanization.* When the majority of Americans lived in rural areas, either on farms or in small, widely separated communities, the possibility for social interchange and recreational activity was necessarily limited. True, the frontiersman and early settler were ingenious in devising forms of play, but by and large life on the farm was extremely limited in terms of recreational opportunity. Today, in large cities or rapidly expanding suburban communities, masses of people find it easy to join together to plan and carry on recreational activities. The ready market they provide also makes it possible for all sorts of agencies to build recreational

facilities and develop programs in the certainty that they will be accepted and used.

2. *Transportation.* The ability to step into one's car and easily travel to a movie, a party, a state park, a ball game, or a square-dance festival—or to shuttle children back and forth to Scout meetings, piano classes, amusement parks, and beaches—has certainly been an important factor in accelerating the use of leisure time for recreational pursuits. For longer vacation jaunts, the airplane, train, or cruise ship all have a substantial amount of recreational use.

3. *Leisure as a Business.* The recognition of the vast amounts of leisure time that have become available, and the willingness of the American consumer to spend heavily to satisfy his leisure interests, have led to the development of a wide variety of commercial recreation enterprises. These, in turn, have not only satisfied existing needs but also have created new ones and aggressively promoted ways of meeting them. The purchasable products of such recreational enterprises include equipment, facilities, forms of entertainment, packaged trips and special services too numerous to mention. They have been so ingenious in their use of modern technology to solve problems of climate, space and ease of participation, that they have in effect created many new kinds of recreation, or made older forms increasingly available. Such products, heavily advertised and promoted, have developed vast new markets and audiences.

4. *Acceptance of Recreation.* The changing moral climate in this country has made it not only respectable to have leisure, but also to take part wholeheartedly in recreational activity. From a period in our early history when almost all forms of play were condemned by Church and civil authorities alike, we have moved through a stage of grudging acceptance to the point where, today, the American culture has been accurately described as having a "fun morality."³ Today, it is taken for granted that one plays hard and long. Indeed, the company executive or professional man (who usually has less leisure than the blue- or white-collar worker) is likely to feel guilty because he does not play enough.

It must be understood that the trend toward expanded leisure and recreational involvement is by no means peculiar to the United States. In an article, "Passing of Work-Obsessed Germany,"

Terence Prittie has commented on the reduction of the work week, the decline of absorption in work as a societal ideal, and increased interest in leisure and recreation in postwar Germany.⁶ A similar development has taken place throughout the Western World, and markedly so in that most industrialized nation of the Orient, Japan.

Recreational Uses of Leisure

Recognizing that one's leisure time may be spent in a variety of ways, let us examine those forms of leisure activity that *are* voluntarily chosen and pleasurable and, therefore, viewed as recreation. These may be classified in three broad categories:

1. *Private Recreation.* This includes the kind of activity which is carried on by individuals or families, either within the home or neighborhood, or on trips, or in other settings which require no formal sponsorship or organization.

2. *Public Recreation.* A host of somewhat more formal and structured recreational activities are sponsored by governmental agencies (local, county, state, or federal), or by voluntary semi-public organizations. As examples, one might include the various kinds of sports or cultural activities offered by municipal recreation departments; outdoor activities such as camping or hiking, which are sponsored by agencies of the state and federal governments; and youth groups and other recreational programs offered by the Y.M.C.A.'s, Y.W.C.A.'s, religious organizations, Boy and Girl Scouts, and similar groups.

3. *Commercial Recreation.* This consists of the kinds of recreational activities offered to the public at large by the mass media (television, radio, motion pictures, and magazines), bowling alleys, theatres, private golf clubs or resorts, private ski centers, marinas, and the like. It also may serve both private and public recreation participants, in terms of developing products and equipment which they use.

A number of attempts have been made to assess the total amount of money spent each year on leisure activities in the United States. Recognizing the difficulty of determining whether an activity is really recreational, the most frequently heard total

sum has ranged between \$20 and \$40 billion a year. In an issue of *Life* magazine devoted exclusively to leisure, Robert Coughlan has written that ". . . it is the growth of leisure time that has kept the American economy strong and growing. . . . A reasonable guess as to the total would be at least \$40 billion dollars a year, which is more than 8% of the gross national product."

The most popular single form of leisure activity appears to be vacation or holiday travel. About one and one-half millions of Americans go abroad each year, on \$2 billion worth of vacation. Coughlan points out that, in the seven years prior to 1959, originators of the "luxury motel chain" idea built well over 100 elaborately equipped Holiday Inns, with an investment of \$115 million. Similarly, the rapid growth of family camping as a somewhat less expensive but equally pleasurable form of vacation travel indicates the popularity of this form of recreation. It was estimated that, in 1963, nearly 100 million Americans took vacation trips away from home, a peak never before approached.

Various forms of water-centered recreation (fishing, swimming, boating, water-skiing, skin-diving) have all seized the public interest, with pleasure-boating having tripled from 1951 to 1959, grossing over \$2 billion in 1958 and \$2.5 billion in 1963. Accompanying this boom has been the development of numerous bodies of navigable waters, including hundreds of large lakes and reservoirs created by the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Army Corps of Engineers, and state and regional authorities. In 1963, it was estimated that there was a private citizen's fleet of seven and one-half million boats of all shapes and sizes. Closely attached to the boating boom is fishing, which involves a \$2.6 billion annual outlay. Coughlan points out that the number of swimming pools in the United States expanded from 12,000 in the entire country in 1950 to over 250,000 in 1958.

Other widely popular forms of recreational participation include "do it yourself" home improvement—amateur house construction, painting, tiling, and repairing—and home gardening. Each of these multibillion dollar pursuits might be viewed not so much as a source of creative pleasure but as a necessary means of avoiding the hiring of high-priced professional artisans. Nonetheless, they are widely thought of as hobbies and have been merchandised on that level; clearly, they provide creative and

Personal Values of Recreational Experience

Probably the most important single reason why people take part in recreational experience is that it brings a direct measure of happiness to them. How does this come about?

CHALLENGE. First, there is the essential element of challenge. In the most significant forms of recreational activity, the individual is faced with a task that must be accomplished. It may be a routine, familiar task, or it may be entirely new to him. It may involve besting an opponent at chess or handball, perfecting his own skills at the piano or the pottery wheel, solving a crossword puzzle or mathematical problem, climbing a mountain peak, building a piece of furniture, making a masterful finesse at contract bridge, playing a difficult role on the stage, or making green grass grow where none has grown before. In any case, he must summon all his resources to meet the challenge. In so doing, he explores his own capacities, improves his abilities, strives his utmost and—win or lose—gains a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction.

STIMULUS. Much of the enjoyment that comes from successful recreation is inherent in the physical nature of the activity—its feel, sound, smell, taste, or appearance. Thus, in art, music, or dance, there may be a high level of sensual pleasure that comes directly from the stimulation of the senses. Much of the fun of fishing lies in the setting; one is buffeted by the surf or one's nostrils tingle at the acrid smell of salt water; the feel of a rod or hand-line as a struggling, alive thing in one's hand; the vision of a perfect cast floating out to land on exactly the right riffle of the current. The smooth rhythm of a graceful tennis forehand, the explosion when the bat meets the pitch solidly, or the more subtle pleasure to be gained from the delicate imagery of a sensitive poem (written or read as recreation)—all of these are direct rewards to the participant.

CHANGE. Another key factor in recreational experience is that it provides variety to living, putting the individual in touch with new people, ideas, and settings. Particularly for those who work

at jobs which are tedious or enervating, but also for the housewife cooped up in her split-level amidst mounds of diapers all day or the retired person whose life runs the risk of becoming a dull, empty routine—for all of these, recreation offers the possibility of something completely different and new, a refreshing change of pace. This is not to say that every form of recreation must offer fresh experience; there are deep satisfactions also in familiar and time-tested hobbies and pursuits.

Briefly stated, the direct outcomes of successful recreation experience for the individual may be listed under the following headings: (1) social, (2) creative, (3) physical, (4) emotional, and (5) intellectual.

SOCIAL OUTCOMES. The social outcomes and values of recreational experience are important for those of all ages, but particularly so for young people. It is in the peer group, engaging in play activities, that children begin to develop social competence. They learn for the first time outside of the family setting the processes of give and take, leading and following, accepting responsibility, sportsmanlike behavior, and group cooperation. For adolescents and adults as well, a wide variety of satisfying group contacts, in which the individual relates effectively to others, shares their concerns and needs, and is accepted by them as a human being, is essential to social growth.

CREATIVE OUTCOMES. At the same time that he is part of the group, recreation also permits the individual to be himself and to explore his own, special creative talents. This is particularly true within the aesthetic areas of art, music, theatre, dance, and creative writing. In each of these, the participant is given the opportunity to make a unique expressive statement that is his alone. Usually, *within the school experience of children, there is a necessary limit to the amount and intensity of creative experience because of other goals and competing areas of curricular concern.* Within recreation, there need be no such limit, and the individual can be free to fully explore his latent creative abilities.

PHYSICAL OUTCOMES. In terms of physical outcomes, recreational activities obviously make an important contribution to the total well-being of the individual. Participating in sports,

games, dance, or outdoor activities suited to one's age and general level of health and fitness is one of the surest ways to maintain an effectively functioning cardiovascular system and good muscular tone. Apart from its organic effects, vigorous recreation (participated in regularly and in reasonable amounts) has also the effect of stimulating alertness and a general sense of well-being. Here we see the value of recreation as a restorative, cited earlier. If one begins a game of golf or bowling fatigued and tense, it is likely that he will feel fresher, stronger, and more invigorated when it is over!

EMOTIONAL OUTCOMES. Dr. William C. Menninger, past president of the American Psychiatric Association and chief of Army Neuropsychiatric Services during World War II, has written convincingly of the observed relationship between recreational participation and one's degree of mental health.¹¹ The ability to develop hobby interests or group ties, or to find emotional release through active sports or the expressive arts media, to find peace and relaxation in a natural setting—all of these are part of a well-balanced regimen of living. One's inability to do these things is significant. Dr. Alexander Reid Martin has written:

Psychiatry has an extensive and intensive interest in leisure because, in most instances of psychoses and neuroses, the earliest and most unamenable signs and symptoms are disturbances in natural recreative functioning. They include sleeplessness, inability to relax, so-called nervous and mental tension, fear of leisure, and the compulsive need to keep going. Furthermore, *the first signs of recovery are shown in a return to natural recreative functioning.*¹²

INTELLECTUAL OUTCOMES. In the past, we have hesitated to associate as serious a word as "intellectual" with as pleasant-sounding a word as "recreation." But, so broad are the possibilities of leisure that one's recreational life may easily include attendance at the legitimate theatre or concerts, a great variety of reading, scientific pursuits, hobbies, exploration and travel, participation in adult courses and seminars, or similar pursuits. Provided that these are not work-related, and have no other major extrinsic purposes, they are recreationally motivated. Unquestionably, as they extend human experience and enrich knowledge and conceptual powers, they contribute important intellectual outcomes.

Social Values of Recreation

From a societal point of view, what does recreation contribute to the community at large? When significant physical, creative, emotional, social, and creative outcomes are derived from recreation for each individual participant, it enhances the quality of living in the society as a whole. When children, youth, adults, and older citizens are all engaged in challenging, stimulating forms of leisure activity, or in helping to plan and organize community or agency programs of recreation, this inevitably aids in creating a community in which desirable social values are stressed. When individuals learn habits and attitudes of group cooperation and responsibility, they are inevitably better able to conduct themselves as effective citizens within the structure of neighborhood life and community government.

In addition, many of the problems that plague our modern society may be ameliorated by the imaginative provision of recreational services, facilities, and personnel.

It has frequently been pointed out that recreation is in itself no cure for juvenile delinquency, and to justify it on that sole basis would be fallacious. At the same time, however, it is widely recognized that attractive, challenging, and intelligently planned leisure time experiences, as an integrated part of a total community effort, can effectively supplement the work of the school, home, and church in reducing delinquent behavior. Obviously, this is not a simple problem (a number of our shortcomings and failures with respect to it will be discussed in the next chapter). But certainly the value of youth recreation services (both in urban depressed areas where culturally deprived youth are found, and in wealthier suburbs which have seen frequent instances of shocking youth vandalism and crime) has become increasingly understood and effectively implemented.

Similarly, we have come to realize that growing numbers of older persons in the American society find leisure a matter of deepest concern. If adequate recreational experiences are not provided, many older persons tend to sink into boredom, apathy, and physical and psychological degeneration. The community that makes concerted efforts to solve this problem, through the develop-

ment and support of recreation programs specifically geared to meet the needs of its senior citizens, is a happier and healthier place to live.

On a variety of levels, recreation has an important role to play in counteracting other kinds of social maladjustment or in meeting the needs of specific groups within the community. In the years ahead, one of the important social problems in which recreation will play a key role will be the troubled sphere of race relations in the United States. Recreation offers the potential for knowing members of other racial, national, or religious groups better, for seeing them as individuals and not as stereotypes—in short, for improving intergroup understanding and cooperation. Thus far, however, recreation has served chiefly as a battleground in areas of racial unrest. Frequently, when Negro groups have pressed their right to use public recreation facilities in the South the response has been to suspend all use of the facilities involved. In other instances, particularly at beaches and pools, violent racial strife has been provoked. Within the field of civil rights, certain major objectives have been established: integrated education, job opportunities, voting rights, and fair-housing practices. It seems likely that equality of opportunity in recreation will be of comparable importance before long.

Economic Values of Recreation

In an economic sense, the importance of leisure and recreation for the nation as a whole has already been demonstrated. It comprises today a major industry and absorbs a considerable portion of our productive energies. Each year, large new markets and fields of employment are being developed. What is not always so clearly understood is the extent to which recreation has positive economic value for the communities in which it exists. It has become a key factor in *making towns and cities more attractive to potential residents or to business firms that are considering moving to them.*

For every community, the extent to which it has come to grips with recreation needs may prove an important asset or serious liability. Rudolph F. Bannow, while president of the National Association of Manufacturers in 1960, commented on this point:

Nothing is more important to the physical and emotional health of the men and women of industry than proper recreation activities. So important is this considered that few modern companies would consider locating a new plant or facility in a community without first surveying its recreation possibilities. Management knows that, in seeking competent and gifted personnel, its ability to attract and hold the men and women it wants often is decided by the little theatre, the park system, or the Little League. The intelligent person industry desires as an employee is certain to insist upon living in a community worthy of his family.¹³

Similarly, Fred Smith, vice-president of the Prudential Insurance Company and a member of the National Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, has pointed out that recreation as a community economic asset has been largely underestimated. It is his belief that even more important than the business generated by leisure activities is the role played by well-planned recreation programs and facilities in stabilizing population, reducing turnover of employees in business, and attracting new industries to American communities. He comments perceptively:

It is beginning to be obvious that we have undergone a major evolutionary development in national psychology in the matter of living and working. A generation or so ago, it was common to assume that one's first obligation was to find a job that would provide some measure of security; and wherever that job was found, that was where you lived and liked it. You made the best of your surroundings. You carved out a life within the limitations of the environs, whatever and wherever they were. But in more recent years there has been a growing determination to live a reasonably satisfactory life, and the job has become only a means to an end, not an end in itself. . . .¹⁴

To illustrate the point, Smith points out that it is general practice for larger corporations to recruit young men and women from colleges, and to prepare promotion books designed to compete effectively with other companies that are seeking to hire the same talented graduates. Without exception, he says, the most successful of these booklets and the most productive recruiters spend a substantial proportion of their space and time exploiting the recreational and cultural facilities of the areas in which their plants or offices are located. The potential employees, in Smith's experience, are inclined to linger longer over the discussion of recreational opportunities than any other aspects of the employment situation.

Organized Labor and Recreation

As evidence of the growing public awareness of the importance of recreation in modern society, the American labor movement, through one of its major spokesmen, George Meany, president of the A.F.L.-C.I.O., has consistently made efforts to support it as an essential service in the field of social welfare.¹⁵ Meany's concern has taken two directions: (1) the need to provide expanded recreation programs for the growing numbers of older citizens, many of whom are retired workers on industrial pension plans; and (2) the recognition that it has been the unions themselves that have, through contract negotiation, brought the industrial worker increasing amounts of leisure, and that the unions therefore have a stake in helping the worker use his time productively and in a socially desirable manner. Attached to this has been the awareness that large numbers of workers who have achieved shorter work weeks have then taken second jobs, thus defeating one of the purposes of the shorter work week, which is to spread the available amount of work among as many workers as possible. A number of large unions have established programs of recreation for their membership and have worked intensively to support and help develop successful community recreation programs.

Olga Madar, in an article on the recreation program of the United Automobile Workers, describes the types of support given by this huge labor organization to the leisure activities of its workers and the communities in which it is centered:

The U.A.W. recognizes that recreation skills and attitudes and the building of sound programs are responsibilities of the home, the schools, and the communities, of the local, state and national government. There is a sincere and continuous effort to work with every existing agency concerned with the same broad recreational aims and goals. The need for better public recreation facilities such as parks, picnic and camping areas; playgrounds, libraries, and museums; for improved programs of art, literature and music; for trained and capable leadership in recreation; for study of all aspects of legislation which affect the leisure of the people and the costs of recreation to the citizens . . . these, too, fall within the serious regard of the U.A.W. Recreation Department.¹⁶

Twenty different U.A.W. councils sponsor and operate varied recreational opportunities for their memberships, frequently at-

tempting to link the union and local communities in jointly sponsored, low-cost recreation. As examples, the Detroit Recreation Councils have offered clinics or instructional classes in such activities as archery, golf, fly and bait casting, gun safety, pool, and billiards and have sponsored tournaments or interleague competition in baseball, softball, bowling, and golf. In bowling alone, in 1959, there were over 700 U.A.W. teams entered in tournament competition. Other special interest activities have included children's dance classes, photography, and music clubs. The U.A.W. Recreation Councils also plan Christmas parties, family picnics and carnivals, and subsidized summer camp programs for children, with a growing activity center program for over 30,000 retired members and their wives.

Religious Involvement in Community Recreation

Similarly, recreation has been recognized as an essential area of community service by the major religions of the United States. Meyer and Brightbill point out that over 400 separate denominations, with a national membership of over 92 million, and youth organizations, with over 10 million members and corporate wealth totalling over \$9 billion, have lent tremendous strength to the recreation movement in recent years.

Through such agencies as the United Christian Youth Council, the National Catholic Community Service, the National Jewish Welfare Board, the Methodist Youth Fellowship, the Luther League, the Newman Clubs, the Catholic Youth Organization, and Hillel and B'nai Brith religious organizations have provided recreational activities which promote fellowship among their own members and strengthen ethical and morally sound ways of using leisure time. In addition, many churches and temples sponsor clubs and activities in cooperation with such national organizations as the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts of America, the Boys' Clubs of America, the Camp Fire Girls, the Grange, and the 4-H Clubs.

Many churches work closely with local recreation boards, commissions, and councils to meet total community recreation needs, offering facilities and leadership and participating in

surveys, workshops, institutes, and conferences. An interesting symposium in *Recreation Magazine* sums up the points of view of the three major denominations: Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish.

In defining the Catholic position, Maurice Hartmann quotes His Holiness, Pope John XXIII, in a letter written in September, 1959: "According to the Christian vision of life, all time—working and leisure time—is a value entrusted by God to the freedom of man, who must utilize it to the glory of God Himself and for the greater perfection of his own person. . . ."¹⁷

Hartmann comments that the Catholic views leisure time as an occasion for wholesome recreation, not merely in the narrow sense of the word but also broadly—as an opportunity for a fuller family life; for worship; for cultural, social, and spiritual growth; and for the development of the whole man. This view is strongly supported by spokesmen for the two other faiths. Sanford Solender, director of the Jewish Community Center division of the National Jewish Welfare Board, stresses particularly the current pervasive crisis in values, and the potential of recreation programs for influencing substantially the judgments of people, in areas of doubt and confusion about human values. Solender writes: "Given a profound respect for human diversity, a commitment to the right of each person to find his own way, and keen insight into the aspirations and needs of the human personality, leaders of sectarian recreation programs can make a telling contribution to this great need of our times."¹⁸

Public Recreation Sponsorship

A final evidence of the board acceptance of leisure as an area of social concern has been the steady growth of public recreation sponsorship on all levels of governmental authority. This growth has been too well described by Hutchinson,¹⁹ Butler,²⁰ Meyer and Brightbill,²¹ and Hjelte and Shivers²² to justify repetition here. For a comprehensive picture of the current sponsorship of park and recreation areas and programs in the United States, the best single source is the *1961 Parks and Recreation Yearbook*.²³ This depicts a particularly striking growth in public recreation sponsorship

during the 1950's. It reveals, on the city and county level, the following growth figures, between 1950 and 1960:

	1950	1960
Total number of reporting agencies (recreation sponsors)	2,277	2,968
Total park and recreation expenditures	\$269 million	\$567 million
Total acreage in parks and recreation (other than school)	644,000 acres	over 1 million acres
Playgrounds conducted under leadership	14,747	20,107

In 1948, Dewhurst, in *America's Needs and Resources*, set the total figure of government expenditures for recreation at \$262 million.²⁴ For 1960, De Grazia gives a total sum of \$894 million spent by all government agencies (federal, state, county, and local) for recreation.²⁵

In terms of manpower assigned to the task of recreation leadership and administration, the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor conducted a nationwide survey of social welfare manpower during the spring and summer of 1960.²⁶ This survey identified a total of 10,448 recreation leaders, 64 per cent in governmental agencies and 36 per cent in voluntary agencies. When one recognizes that many individuals who are employed in hospitals, schools, and commercial and private agencies perform recreation functions but may hold other titles, it becomes apparent that the figure of 10,448 seriously underestimates the total number of recreation professionals. For example, the full-time, year-round recreation leaders identified in the 1961 *Parks and Recreation Yearbook* totalled 9,216—almost exclusively government employees. It seems probable that the total number of full-time year-round recreation leaders in the country today is close to 25,000.

Along with a growth in professional leadership, there has been a considerable expansion in the development of recreational facilities. This has been particularly true with respect to outdoor recreation areas operated by federal agencies, and to the use of these facilities.

The National Park Service of the Department of the Interior, for example, noted a total attendance in all its areas of over 72

million visitors in 1960, as compared with approximately 50 million in 1955. The Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture, which provides facilities for camping, picnicking, skiing, swimming, hiking, riding, mountain climbing, hunting, and similar activities, climbed from a total of 45.7 million recreation visits in 1955 to over 92.5 million visits in 1960. In terms of facilities alone, the value of recreation facilities and equipment on Tennessee Valley Authority lakes was estimated in 1960 at over \$120 million, an 845 per cent increase over 1947, the first year for which comparable data are available.

At the same time, the states have been moving ahead to protect natural areas against encroachment, and to make major purchases of wilderness sites that may be developed for outdoor recreational uses. As an example of the efforts of a single state, the Pennsylvania State Planning Board developed a plan titled "Project 70", which included, in 1963, a proposed bond issue of \$70 million specifically earmarked for land acquisition for recreational or conservation purposes. Of this sum, \$20 million was allocated to provide matching grants for regional or local land acquisition. The plan is intended to create, by 1970, three new federal parks in Pennsylvania, new recreation and tourist attractions throughout the state, and a "green belt" of regional parks and open spaces in urban counties.²⁷

Both through such state plans, and through regional planning for multiple-use development of river basins and drainage areas throughout the country, there has been an impressive response to the recommendations of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission.

The Status of Recreation Today

This chapter has described the nature of leisure in our modern society, and the uses to which it is put. The recent history of this field has been marked by:

1. A steady increase in the amount of available leisure time.
2. The appearance of a wide variety of recreational pursuits, enjoyed by the public at large.

3. The expansion of recreation services offered by governmental, religious, industrial, labor, private, and commercial agencies.

On all levels, the important role played by recreation within the personal life of each individual, as well as its significance as an economic and social asset both to the nation and the local community, has apparently been recognized.

What, then, is the problem? In what way do we need to be concerned about the continued expansion of leisure and the proliferation of recreational activities? What issues need to be faced and what is the task facing the schools, thus far unmentioned in this analysis? The next chapter will provide some of the answers to these questions.

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Conflict in Leisure Values

Teen-age behavior in this prosperous commuter town is reaching the "point of alarm," a report by a study committee of the Council of . . . School Parents said today. The report . . . cited instances of drinking in school buses and cars, stealing and shoplifting in the downtown business section, vandalism in the schools, gang activities and an "unbelievable amount" of necking and petting by the junior high school-age group at a local theater. . . ,¹

NEWS STORY IN THE NEW YORK TIMES

ON THE FACE of it, the preceding chapter would appear to suggest that there are few problems with respect to leisure and recreation in the United States today. We have at present more leisure than ever before in our nation's past, with increasing amounts to come. Private industry, government, organized labor, religious, and other voluntary community agencies all seem to subscribe to its values and are contributing to recreational programming. There is a considerable expansion of outdoor recreational opportunities, in particular. A host of leisure activities beguile us at every turn.

What, then, is the problem?

Why do we hear dire comments—that other nations have crumbled because they were unable to solve the problem of having too much leisure—and that this is our most serious contemporary challenge?

Those who take this position suggest that we suffer from a basic conflict in values. We have leisure, they say, but we really do not know what to do with it. It is their position that, within a highly mechanized, heavily urban society, with an increasingly automated industrial system, and with all forms of familial and societal relationships undergoing rapid change, it is necessary to think of leisure in an entirely new light. To continue to view it within a limited and trivial range of purpose is to ignore the fact that it is increasingly becoming the major focus of our lives. Are we ready, they ask, as a nation, to invest our leisure with more serious purpose?

A related problem is that the forms of play in which we are involved today are frequently accused of being at the lowest possible level of taste and significant involvement. Some social critics suggest that we continue to be increasingly dependent on spectator-type activities, while others see the American public as being so "rubber-stamped" by mass-produced, mechanically operated recreation services and products that there is no opportunity for meaningful personal expression or truly individual experiences.

In terms of social purpose, it is clear that we are only beginning to recognize the full potential of organized recreation in meeting the needs of special groups within our society, including older citizens, adolescents, minority groups and handicapped individuals.

Clearly, the problems of leisure must be more seriously examined by those who are concerned with our national well-being.

The constriction of recreation opportunities both in our wildernesses and in our cities, the all-powerful influence of commercial recreation interests, the interplay of governmental and voluntary social agencies in the leisure field—all of these need to be better understood. Finally, we must come to grips with the relationship between recreation and education. On the one hand, recreation offers a useful medium for developing important educative experiences and, indeed, for extending the educational process throughout life. On the other, it is crucial that the nation's schools recognize leisure as a major fact of modern life and—for the first time—begin to deal with it as a serious focus of education.

Let us examine these points more fully.

The Conflict in Leisure Values

Key to an understanding of this problem is the fact that it is so new. Although Aristotle wrote extensively of leisure in ancient Athens, *mass leisure* has only been a reality for the past 50 years. And, only within the past 25 years has a profession emerged whose assigned function is the conduct of organized recreation programs. In terms of scholarly investigations of leisure, by far the mass of entries in Denney and Meyersohn's "Bibliography of Leisure," printed in the *American Journal of Sociology* in 1957,² are dated after 1940.

What thinking there has been about leisure and recreation has been highly fragmentized. Anthropologists, philosophers, psychologists, and social historians all tend to take understandably specialized views of the problem. Chroniclers of public taste, usually writing in a satirical vein, are somewhat broader but more superficial in scope. The investigations of recreation professionals (educators, administrators, and leaders) have chiefly centered about logistics. They carry on surveys of community or regional or institutional practices and needs, or develop administrative guides or programs of professional preparation. The basic questions usually asked by a community or agency recreation director about a recreation activity are: "Is it wanted? Will people support it if I offer it?" Only when this has been answered positively is he likely to ask: "What will it really do for people?" or "Is it worth

doing?" After this, the question of moral acceptability must be considered: "Will anyone object to it?" To the commercial recreation proprietor, including the operators of the mass media, even this question is of little concern, except when it is enforced by law, as in the case of dance halls, night clubs, movie theaters, and pool halls.

By and large, practitioners and scholars in this field have not yet met, and there has been little effort to bring them together, except in a few college and university programs of professional recreation education.

Thus we find an acute social critic, Paul Goodman, writing in his perceptive study of today's adolescents, *Growing Up Absurd*:

What are the present goals of the philosophers of leisure, for instance, the National Recreation Association? . . . There would be a hundred million adults who have cultured hobbies to occupy their spare time: some expert on the flute, some with do-it-yourself kits, some good at chess and go, some square dancing, some camping out and enjoying nature, and all playing various athletic games. . . . The philosophy of leadership, correspondingly, is to get people to participate—everybody must "belong."³

Goodman comments that, even if all these participants were getting deep personal satisfaction from these activities, this would not be a justification for them. "There is no ethical necessity in it, no standard. *One cannot waste a hundred million people in that way.*" He criticizes the view of recreation as an activity participated in merely for the enjoyment it affords, and goes on to say: "From the present philosophy of leisure, no new culture can emerge. What is lacking is worth-while community necessity, as the serious leisure, the *scholē*, of the Athenians had communal necessity, whether in the theatre, the games, the architecture and festivals, or even the talk."⁴

The point is made somewhat differently by Sebastian de Grazia who, in his monumental study for the Twentieth Century Fund, *Of Time, Work and Leisure*,⁵ suggests that the tendency of modern Americans to fill their leisure time with chores, hobbies, community obligations, and trivial pursuits means that they have no real leisure. To de Grazia, a noted political scientist, the only real leisure must involve exploration of the spirit and serene communion with nature.

A Spiritual Statesmanship Conference convened by the Jewish Theological Seminary of America at Boston, in 1956, had the *changing role of leisure in our society as its theme*. One of the speakers, John Wild, commented that

. . . the most important values of personal existence and freedom can no longer be achieved in mass labor. If they are going to be achieved, they must be achieved in what we rightly call "free time." If this is true, it means that a change needs to be made in our basic ethos. . . . Most of us at the present time think of leisure as something we engage in for the sake of work. Doesn't this need to be reversed?⁶

Work as a Traditional Focus of Living

In attempting to establish a meaningful concept of leisure and recreation today, it is necessary, as Wild suggests, to view them in relation to work. Work, as seen by George Soule, has traditionally been the serious business of life, because it has monetary value. Essentially, in the contract society, it is an exchange commodity. It is time sold. Work is conscious, purposeful activity which serves the material needs of the community and society. For this reason, as Nels Anderson points out in his recent study, *Work and Leisure*,⁷ whatever our behavior on a job, most of us have learned to regard work with respect. We have all been influenced by the Western idea of work as defined in the Protestant ethic: through work, man serves his God and derives the essential values of the good life. Work has thus been viewed as more than materialistic accomplishment or the basis of economic survival. It has been seen as a source of social and moral values. It is, in effect, "divine."⁸

Historical Views of Leisure

In contrast, nonwork, or leisure, has traditionally been viewed in Western society with deep suspicion or outright condemnation. Anderson points out that:

Sloth and idleness have always been a concern for those who work and in the Middle Ages those who sank into such a condition of idleness

were said to be sick. Monks so afflicted in ancient times were thought by their fellows as having been possessed by a demon, taking away their lust for labor and replacing serenity with attitudes of doubt and cynicism. This condition was called "accidie," a reason for pity.⁹

In England, before the Puritans came to the American colonies, there was much controversy regarding the use of leisure for personal amusement. Some favored the existing pastimes while others severely criticized them. In 1618, King James I issued a proclamation, known as the "Book of Sports," giving approval to dancing on the green, Maypole festivities, wrestling, and other recreational pursuits, such as archery, bullbaiting, and bearbaiting—all of them popular in the England of that period.

In the New England colonies, the early Puritan settlers, by religious conviction and because of economic necessity, did not share the view of James, and passed strict laws against all forms of amusements and sports. It was essential that "no idle drone bee permitted to live amongst us." Magistrates attempted to suppress almost every form of leisure activity, long after the practical economic justification for such an attitude had passed. Massachusetts and Connecticut banned dice, cards, quoits, bowls, ninepins, "or any other unlawful game in house, yard, garden or backside." Throughout New England, local ordinances ordered the constables to "search after all manner of gaming, singing and dancing" and to report "disordered meetings." Dancing under most circumstances was condemned, and the theater was absolutely prohibited.¹⁰ Even walking in the fields on Sunday was viewed as sinful.

In religious writings and teachings, in folklore ("the devil finds work for idle hands," and the fable of the grasshopper and the ant), and in the writings of Ruskin, Carlyle, and Hubbard work continued to be glorified as a social ideal and leisure to be regarded with suspicion. As a consequence of this traditional attitude, when, at the beginning of the present century, leisure began to be increasingly available, it was widely viewed as a social danger—an opportunity for the "lower classes" to engage in drunkenness, vice, and gambling—rather than as a constructive possibility. In Great Britain, one investigator points out that

. . . until comparatively recently, leisure has been treated by most social investigators in its pathological aspects—as a "problem"—and social surveys have tended to concentrate on betting, drinking, gambling,

and sexual delinquency. Frequently spectator sports, ballroom dancing, popular music, cinema, radio, television, the popular press and popular periodicals have been included in the pathology of leisure. British sociology has always been strongly reformist in orientation while British sociologists have been mainly middle class in origin and "intellectuals" by education. These factors *together* have hindered the proper understanding of the role of leisure in the people's life and the nature of popular culture.¹¹

With this background, it is possible to understand why leisure is still viewed by many in the Western world with at least a partial sense of guilt, and why recreation frequently is made as much *like* work as possible, in order to make it respectable. Here is a paradox of the present day, for work is no longer what it was. Not only has its duration lessened, but also it makes different demands upon the worker and offers him different values in return.

The Changed Nature of Work

Obviously, work has changed in industrial society in terms of the physical demands it makes upon the worker. Both because it is inefficient and because workers turn away from the type of job that involves toil or drudgery, mechanical means have been devised to accomplish most of the tasks that in past centuries required painful, exhausting, ant-like labor.

A second element of change, Anderson points out, is that an increasing number of workers who sell their time seem to have little interest in the job or the total enterprise. Various efforts have been made to restore worker interest: profits-sharing or stock-purchase plans, suggestion boxes, employee councils, and other methods of reviving "company consciousness." But, he writes, none of this seems to have worked:

There is no evidence that this worker attitude is detrimental to his efficiency; productivity increases and worker efficiency does not decline. The worker sells his time and skill, a business transaction; the transaction complete, at quitting time he puts work out of mind. He is no longer the slave of a routine job, but has worked out a sensible relationship with it.¹²

Why is this so? Work today is essentially anonymous and impersonal. Because of its high degree of specialization, it is very much unlike those forms of enterprise in earlier cultures, in which the worker had a variety of tasks to perform, all involving choice and the application of personal standards. The older craftsman, involved with all phases of the productive process, derived creative satisfactions from it, whereas the modern industrial worker, particularly on the assembly belt or in an automated plant, is usually involved with only one highly specialized phase of production. Work, while short in hours, has also become more concentrated and active—less controlled by the worker and capable of setting its own pace, which he must follow.

The worker's role within the plant or firm is much more rigidly compartmentalized; his job is set at a certain level and his task prescribed in fine print in manuals. The setting is a bureaucratic one; "prerogatives and responsibilities are those of the office, rather than the person; and they relate to each other in a chain of command which pyramids to the top administrator."¹³ Within such a setting, the worker is less of a person; he is a unit in production, necessary but replaceable, with salary, working conditions, and personnel benefits determined by agreement between not himself and the employer, but between the union and the employer.

Dan Dodson, director of the New York University Center for Human Relations and Community Studies, points out that in the past work was the principal way in which most people achieved their self-realization. Today, he writes that

. . . this concept of work is rapidly passing. For the vast body of labor in America, work is no longer self-fulfilling. One reason is that status has changed from being vested in skill and excellence of artisan-ship to status being based on capacity to consume. A second reason for work no longer being a vehicle for self-fulfillment is the changed nature of production. Robot production has relegated man to the sideline. He sees the machines deprive him of that which gave life meaning and purpose; namely, work.¹⁴

The position is clearly stated: many of the central values so important to personal happiness and meaningful existence, which work once yielded, must now be sought elsewhere. The conclusion reached by thoughtful social critics is that these must now be

derived through leisure-time experience. No longer can leisure be viewed primarily as the opportunity to restore the individual for work, they point out. A profound change must be made in the philosophy of leisure which governs both our provision of recreation services and participation in recreation by the mass of the people.

Yet, one must ask if there is a realistic limit to the functions assigned to leisure in today's society. A participant in the Spiritual Statesmanship Conference of 1956 commented on the view of leisure which emerged during the meetings:

The conception which is put forward in this document . . . tends to focus on the life of the American as a person in his leisure hours rather than in his working hours, and extends leisure far beyond play and recreation, in the common sense of the word, toward the realization of the highest potentialities on high levels of value. This conception is quite strange to the mentality of the people who are making the policy of the public school curriculum.¹⁵

It is probably safe to say that it is a conception which would be strange to *most* Americans—including recreation professionals—in the present day. And yet it has been expressed not only by clergymen, philosophers and social scientists. The lead editorial of the *Life* magazine issue on leisure made the case even more strongly, when it claimed that

. . . never have so many man-hours of leisure energy been available for high achievements in all the arts and sciences. The opportunity is so unprecedented that if Nurse Leisure plays no favorites, American civilization ought to be freer and bolder than the Greek, more just and powerful than the Roman, wiser than the Confucian, richer in invention and talent than the Florentine or Elizabethan, more resplendent than the Mogul, prouder than the Spanish, saner than the French, more responsible than the Victorian, and happier than all of them together. . . . American civilization, whatever anybody may think of it, has scarcely measured up to that opportunity. . . .¹⁶

The prospect is an exciting one. Yet, one must ask, is it through recreational participation that all this is to be accomplished?

The basic point is that leisure affords us the opportunity to do many things, and that recreation is only one of these. In leisure, we may worship, invite our souls in communion with nature,

crew-cut mate, "Ken," amassed approximately \$50 million in 1962, including the sale of dolls, wardrobes, and accessories. The product of another doll manufacturer, "Kissy," is able to kiss back indefinitely, as long as her arms are drawn together. Her \$18 price tag warns, however, that "Kissy cannot drink. Do not put liquids in her mouth or her kissing method will be damaged. . . ."

TREE HOUSES. Playing "cowboys and Indians" has long been a favorite pastime of American youngsters. Nowadays, this can be made increasingly enjoyable if a child owns a ready-built "tree-house." These are available at various prices. One may pay as much as \$495 for a cedar log cabin with glass-paned windows, lookout tower, and front veranda. A "Fort Apache" of vertical spruce boards with pillboxes with firing slits and a small hinged flap for peeking outside may be had for as little as \$100.¹⁹

EDUCATIONAL TOYS AND HOBBIES. Hobbies in particular have been intensively exploited as forms of family fun. A special 16-page, full-color insert in *The New York Times*²⁰ shows how all the ingenuity of science has been brought to bear, resulting in such toys or construction projects as "transistor electronic laboratories," with which one may build radios, code practice sets, burglar alarms, rain detectors and—with what seems to be poetic justice—television "commercial killers."

One manufacturer presents a solar-powered transistor-speaker radio kit. Another offers model racing cars with pre-built turnpike tracks and operating "waterfall tunnels." A so-called complete beginner's course in basic electricity performs many exciting "experiments." One set of "Adventure Kits" offers professionally operating short wave radios, weather research laboratories, speed boats, fire fighters, antique cars, clipper ships, and modern sea liners.

ART KITS. The field of art is by no means overlooked. Any number of manufacturers offer "numbered oil painting sets" (paint by the numbers), or "picturesque elegant mosaic panels" with the slogan, "You can create a stunning work of art . . . and on your very first try."

In this promotional brochure, and presumably in all their advertisements, the manufacturers stress the idea that "hobby families" are "happy families." A picture story in the insert shows

such famous hobbyists as Franklin Delano Roosevelt exhibiting his stamp collection and ship models, Emperor Hirohito enjoying science as a creative hobby, and Winston Churchill and General Eisenhower indulging in painting as a hobby.

What does all this mean? Certainly, most of these products and the activities they make possible are not "bad" in any moral sense, except as they promise what they cannot deliver. Some of them even have real recreation possibilities. But the objection to the great majority of them is that they offer mechanically operated and prefabricated forms of play, consisting frequently of pushing a button or assembling prepackaged parts. Sterile in potential for truly creative, sustained play or exploration, they offer very little real learning. Once the child's insistent urge to possess the desired object is satisfied, its use is often only a matter of days. From a recreational point of view, and based on a view of desirable *individual* outcomes, the thought that millions of children or adults are carrying out exactly the same mechanical manipulation and having the same negative experience makes such products abhorrent. And they are all extremely expensive.

COMMERCIAL SPORTS

Certainly, many of the contributions of modern technology to participation in sports and games have been extremely valuable. They have made it feasible to enjoy activities in settings and under circumstances in which, formerly, it would not have been conceivable.

SOUTHERN SKIING. With the aid of sprinkler devices that mix compressed ice and water to produce artificial snow, major ski centers have recently been developed in a number of Southern states. For example, Gatlinburg, Tennessee, has a \$1,300,000 ski resort, and Blowing Rock, North Carolina, a \$500,000 center. These have elaborate double-chair lifts, rope tows, T-Bar lifts, imported instructors, and artificial skating rinks. They have been successful in promoting ski clubs throughout their respective regions, which is all to the good.

NIGHTTIME ARCHERY. On the other hand, one begins to have misgivings about "The Merrie Olde Sport of Archery in the Trappings of Electronic Age,"²¹ an article which describes the sport as

philosophize, build, study, engage in civic enterprise, do charitable work—or we may take part in activity which is frankly considered recreation and which is chosen chiefly because of the pleasure it brings. Perhaps we are too ambitious in assigning to recreation the task of remaking our society and raising our civilization to new heights. Recreation is an expression of the culture rather than the motivating force that shapes the culture. It seems clear that the people who are going to build the great buildings, paint the great paintings, write the great poems, and think the great thoughts will do so as highly gifted and devoted professionals and will do so as life work and not as a pastime. It may be that the mass involvement of millions in such activities will create a cultural climate in which great artists can flourish; hopefully, this will be the case.

Let us more modestly restate the goals of *recreation for everyone* in the coming age of leisure opportunity. They are to enrich each individual's life as fully as possible, in terms of the creative, social, physical, emotional, and intellectual outcomes described in Chapter One, and, in so doing, to raise the level of community life as well. Obviously, as more and more of the energies and drives formerly expended in work become directed to recreational activities, they *will* assume increasing importance and yield greater satisfactions.

In the light of this statement, let us take a second and more detailed look at a number of the most popular forms of recreational activities enjoyed by Americans today. To what extent are they meaningful expressions of worthwhile human purposes and drives? To what extent do they satisfy significant needs and enhance the quality of living?

Evaluating Recreation Experiences

As we examine the kinds of recreational experiences engaged in today by large numbers of Americans, we pay particular attention to those made available by private business interests and commercial firms. Their influence is widely felt because they enter the home, and, through advertising, promote their products much more aggressively than public or private agencies. As a result, they

help to create a public image of what recreation *should* be. The following questions must be asked:

1. Do these experiences provide individually motivated and personally meaningful outcomes, or are they essentially mass-produced, mechanical, and noncreative?

2. What kinds of values, if any, are being consciously promoted through recreational experiences?

3. To what extent are the mass media responsible for creating and encouraging low levels of cultural taste, through the kinds of entertainment they make available daily to millions of Americans (certainly an important part of recreational experience)?

4. Do most Americans view their leisure choices as significant in the total quality of their living, and to what extent do they attempt to make intelligent choices about how their recreational time should be spent? Or, in effect, are their choices made for them?

5. Are we moving away from passive, spectator-oriented recreational pursuits toward more active involvement, or does this continue to be a problem within the leisure field?

Since patterns of recreational participation established during childhood are likely to influence later interests and attitudes, it is appropriate to examine commercial play products that have increasingly appeared on the leisure market.

EFFECTS OF COMMERCIAL AMUSEMENTS

In terms of commercially manufactured play products for children, we see a host of articles that are technically clever, imaginatively devised, extremely expensive, and merchandized with a "super-sell" approach that makes them irresistible to children. In 1963, America's toy sales were estimated to have reached \$1.5 billion (within a recent 30-year period, while the population increased a healthy 45 per cent, toy production shot up 2,000 per cent).¹⁷

DOLLS. Among the most popular toy items are dolls that walk, talk, teethe, use the telephone, and sing. In some cases, they wear furs that, for the favored doll, may cost as much as \$400 each.¹⁸ A sample product, the "Teenage Barbie fashion doll" and her

played in Denver and a number of other cities across the nation. Electronically keyed shooting complexes are modeled after bowling centers, making use of automated targets, aluminum shafted arrows, glass fiber bowstrings, and fluorescent-lighted indoor ranges. The archery center in Denver has 32 lanes operating from morning to midnight. Ten different targets are available, varying from the faces of playing cards to the conventional ringed bull's eye; the push of a button makes the electrically-powered target board (suspended from an overhead rail) move forward or backward from the shooting position. Similar centers have been built in Washington, Oregon, and California.

There have been comparably fantastic elaborations of water sports, such as air-conditioned fishing piers in Texas (one fishes through a hole in the pier, as in ice-fishing); the complicated procedures of skin and scuba diving; luxury houseboating; or water-skiing with kite-like devices strapped to the back which pull one up into the air.

Perhaps all this is inevitable in a technological era. It is probably inevitable too that, at the same time, as cleverly devised equipment and facilities attract vast numbers of new participants, it is necessary to surround activities with previously unheard-of rules and restrictions. For instance, *Tidings*, a Michigan Inter-Agency Council recreation publication, reports:

Among the new regulations now in force governing the operation of watercraft in Michigan is a requirement that all motorboats when in use must be equipped with a Coast Guard-approved life preserver, vest, ring buoy, or cushion for every person on board. Also, Coast Guard-approved hand extinguishers are required, according to length of boats which are of closed or semi-closed construction; and there are new regulations about operating watercraft in regard to docks, rafts, bathing areas, etc. Skin divers are required to use buoys to mark areas where they are operating underwater. According to a recent Conservation Department news release, copies of a folder giving details on these and other new rules and previous regulations are available through the Secretary of State's office in Lansing. . . .²²

Undoubtedly, each of these restrictions is essential, for obvious safety reasons. And yet one wonders what such extensive policing and control do to the *nature* of recreation. Play activities tend to become so prestructured, so organized, so mechanized, and so dependent on the right equipment and facilities that spontaneity and informal, casual participation tend to disappear.

At the same time that great attention is given to the "how" of sports and games, very little seems to be given to their "why." In terms of human values and outcomes—*what happens to people*—sports clearly have much to offer. Players are thrown together in moments of extreme emotional tension, and under circumstances of intense competition or cooperation. There is the occasion for violent contact, and there are highly tempting rewards. We are taught that through sports one learns good citizenship and the highest ideals of sportsmanship.

Is this the case? Realistically, what values are exemplified in many sports today, both professional and amateur? A look at several news stories in a single issue of a morning newspaper is instructive.²⁸ The headline, excerpts from the text, and an interpretative comment for each story, follow:

Soccer in Britain Defended in Fix

London, April 29—The Secretary of the English Football Association, Dennis Follows, said today "it would be wrong for the public to think bribery is rife in British football," following the confession of a player who said he had accepted a bribe. . . .

COMMENT: Gambling on sports has led to frequent exposures of "fixed" amateur and professional contests.

* * *

Critics Call Johansson Punchy, but Swede Will Keep on Fighting

Geneva, April 29—In the newspapers of Sweden, England and possibly other places too, Ingemar Johansson is pictured this week as a man who has begun hearing bells in his ears. The words "punch drunk" are not used in the press, presumably for fear of libel suits. . . .

COMMENT: Boxing has led to a number of tragic deaths in recent years, and there have been unsuccessful attempts to outlaw it as a sport.

* * *

Vatican Paper Terms Riots in Soccer a Throwback to Paganism

Vatican City, April 29—L'Osservatore Romano said today the Italian soccer riots that killed a man and injured 89 persons yesterday were a throwback to the days of the pagan gladiators . . . like the "bloody games" of the ancient Romans. . . .

COMMENT: Riots at American college basketball games have occurred frequently in recent years.

* * *

N.B.A. Abolishes Territorial Draft, but Knicks Are Protected on Two Stars

After years of controversy among its members, the National Basketball Association finally abolished its territorial draft rule at the opening session of its annual meeting yesterday. . . .

COMMENT: In a number of major sports, college athletes are claimed, sold, and swapped like chattel.

Clearly, it would be wrong to say that there is no concern with moral values in the world of sport. But too often, the wrong values are stressed, with unfortunate outcomes on every level of play. The problem is not in the sports themselves, but rather in the ways in which they are *misused*.

On the one hand, one hears pious condemnation of gambling on college sports and outraged shock expressed when "fixes" are exposed. On the other, legalized gambling is booming across the United States and is increasingly being used as a source of state revenue. In the spring of 1963, it was reported that the previous year was the biggest in the history of horse racing in the United States. More than 50 million people attended horse tracks and bet \$3.6 billion, thereby contributing some \$288 million to the treasuries of the 24 states that get a cut of the pari-mutuel proceeds.²⁴ This, plus dog racing in seven states, Florida's *jai alai*, and Nevada's flourishing casinos, have pushed the gambling revenues even higher. At least a dozen states in 1963 were considering the extension of their racing seasons, and others are raising the state tax on racing in order to obtain more income. Several states have had legislative proposals for state lotteries; New Hampshire was the first to pass one, in 1963.

What human values are served here?

PASSIVITY AND SPECTATORITIS

In the 1920's and 1930's, there was a major concern about "spectatoritis"—the tendency to spend one's leisure hours in completely passive pursuits, or being entertained in theaters, movie houses, at the radio set, or mass sporting events. J. B. Nash²⁵ wrote eloquently on this theme. A number of observers have argued recently that this no longer seems to be a serious problem. They see the "do-it-yourself" movement, the popularity of water sports, family camping, community recreation programs, gardening, bowling, and other hobbies as evidence that Americans are now a nation of doers, rather than watchers.

The point is debatable. There is certainly evidence that attendance at the movies has declined. On the other hand, home television watching climbed dramatically during the 1950's. The number of television sets in the United States increased from four million in 1950 to over 45 million seven years later. Studies have shown that television watching has cut sharply into other forms of leisure participation.²⁶

How about attendance at sports events?

These do not seem to have suffered. College football in the fall of 1962 attracted 21,227,162 "live" customers, an increase of about 500,000 over the previous year, and about five million more than in 1953 (at a time when professional football made great strides in popularity, and professional baseball added new teams to each major league). Clearly, vast numbers of Americans still seek major portions of their leisure satisfactions as spectators.

Why should this concern us? In terms of deriving important personal benefits from recreation, spectator activities are disappointing in that they do not really involve the participant socially, physically, or creatively. Only if one sees recreation as *escape* or the means of *recuperation*—which cannot be its chief function in the present day—is a heavy diet of such experiences justifiable. This, of course, is a matter of degree. No one can or should be actively involved in recreational pursuits *all* the time. What is important is the kind of statistic that says American children in some communities spend more hours each day watching television than they do attending school. What kinds of leisure patterns are these youngsters establishing for adulthood?

Two specific issues may be identified with relation to passive forms of play today, particularly in terms of the effect of the mass media of entertainment: (1) the over-all quality of the entertainment being offered (the kinds of tastes it satisfies and the standards it encourages); and (2) the degree to which it enforces the tendency for modern man to become an automaton—a passive slave to a mechanized, impersonal environment.

QUALITY OF MASS MEDIA. Too much has been written analyzing the forms of entertainment being offered by the movies, television, and radio to justify a lengthy analysis here. The essential point is that, controlled as they are by the necessity to sell their products to the widest possible audience, those responsible have directed their programs to the lowest possible level. Violence,

crudity, meaningless quiz shows, "grunt and groan" wrestling, and humorless situation comedies accompanied by "canned" laughter fill the airways. In the words of Max Lerner:

The listener, who is the potential buyer of the products, is not the buyer of the shows; it is he who is being sold. So long as he can be delivered to the advertiser, it matters little what the program does to his taste and values. This is the art of the marketplace brought into the living room; it is entertainment not as art, but as advertising . . . reflected in motion pictures in the gradual abdication of the creator as the moving force behind the pictures and placing power in the hands of the controlling financial interest. . . .²⁷

What are the value outcomes of such experiences? Paul Goodman relates that when a cross section of Oklahoma high school juniors and seniors was asked which living person they would like to be, the boys named Pat Boone, Ricky Nelson, and President Eisenhower; the girls chose Debbie Reynolds, Elizabeth Taylor, and Natalie Wood.²⁸ President Eisenhower himself (unique in this line-up of entertainment stars) has commented on what he has considered to be a serious decline of public morality, strongly influenced by the forms of entertainment available today.

MAN AS AUTOMATON. At the same time that the tastes of the viewer are thus met—or not met—one sees passive exposure to the mass media as reinforcing the tendency toward depersonalization of modern man. Riesman has commented perceptively on what he calls "other-directedness,"²⁹ the state of responding, like a receiving set, to signals and directions from without rather than to an internal set of values. Meadows, in an article, "Dynamic Technology and Psychic Passivity," describes the new model of industrial man as "likely to be less rational, less aggressive, and above all less certain than his predecessor."³⁰ Anderson writes, "The machine civilization, while giving him comfort, has taken his spirit and initiative. As he works so also he plays, in a passive way."³¹

What it means is that, just as man has succumbed to the "organization" in his working life, by adapting to its demands and accepting its values, so he is subjected to the "organization" in his leisure life. He sees a "prime-time" television show along with 60 million others and laughs at the appropriate moments. He rolls a bowling ball in a 36-lane center as part of a 72-team tournament.

He drives his son to the Little League tryout so that he may begin to move up through the freshman league, junior league, minor league, major league, and eventually Babe Ruth and Pony League. He buys an umbrella tent, air mattresses, gasoline lantern and stove, sleeping bags, and portable refrigerator, in order to be with nature, and finds that he is as well equipped as his neighboring campers, ten feet away on either side.

Pressures to Participate

Clarke points out that there is increasing evidence today that one's pattern of recreational participation is viewed as an indication of class status.³² Taking part in prestigious activities becomes a way of reinforcing one's social and occupational position, a means of "getting ahead."

Similarly, Packard, in *The Status Seekers*, shows how one's leisure pursuits, drinking and dining habits, participation in sports, games, and cultural activities are all related to status identification. The *Wall Street Journal* carried out a study of executive entertainment, noting that men are "quick to deny that they have fallen into any corporate mold" or just "live for the company." One young sales executive, who made that protestation, stated a few minutes later, however: "My wife and I decided a long time ago not to waste too much of our leisure time with casual entertainment. When we have people out to the house, it has to be those who may be important to me as contacts."³³ Thus, leisure activities are seen as useful in business or professional advancement.

Some of the pressures to participate come about not from a desire to get ahead but rather as a consequence of attractive promotion and dynamic salesmanship. As evidence of this trend, one finds leisure attached, as a selling point, to residential developments.

Rare is the newly built house that does not feature a "play" room. One recent advertisement for a development on New York's Long Island, says, "Yes, Seaford will boast a brand new 200 acre Town Park with Golf Course, Boating and Swimming. . . ." Another attached two-family home development promises ". . . A FULL SOCIAL LIFE . . . here is an active community with

pleasurable programs to make each day interesting. Healthful leisure hours right at your doorstep. . . . Full Olympic size POOL, plus wading pool for kiddies, large sun lounge area, locker room building, tennis, handball and shuffleboard, available to residents at modest membership fee. . . ."

Who would dare be inactive in the huge apartment development that advertises itself as having "Recreation and Vacation Facilities: Olympic Swimming Pools, Wading Pools, Playgrounds, Social Director, Tennis Courts, Movie Theatre, Steam Rooms, Meeting and Club Rooms, Party Suites, Accredited Nursery and Day School"? This project is fortunately near the "1964 World's Fair, Met's Stadium, Forest Hills Tennis Championship, Kissena Golf Course and Flushing Boat Basin," although why anyone would want to leave the development itself, with its "illuminated atrium and Rotunda highlighted with luminous Dancing Waters"³⁴ is indeed a mystery.

Clearly, leisure itself has become an important value of modern living, if one can use it to help sell houses and rent apartments. So pervasive is approval of the urge to play that a number of social critics have commented plaintively on the dizzying succession of obligatory recreational experiences that they see foisted on children. Sloan Wilson joins them in claiming that we fill our leisure with a host of meaningless, hectic amusements. He asks,

. . . in this land of leisure, where are all the leisurely people? Why do doctors have to keep telling us to take things easy if we all have so much leisure? Something odd happens to free time in this country. We have it, yet we do not. It is almost as if someone were playing an enormous shell game with our idle hours. There they are—we can prove statistically that we have them—but where did they go? The idle hours disappear because we waste and misuse them. We do so because most of us have little conception of the vast difference between the true leisure which is a rewarding, nourishing use of free time and . . . aimless meandering which eats up the time before we realize what has happened. . . .³⁵

A point that must be sharply made at this juncture is that much of the preceding discussion fails to take into account the question of socioeconomic class. It is the professional and executive class that, by and large, continues to work excessively long hours and to have comparatively little leisure. It is the upper-middle or upper-class child who is subjected to an overcrowded routine of ballet

lessons, ceramics classes, camping, Boy and Girl Scouts, sailing lessons, riding lessons, and assorted sports—with insufficient sheer, relaxed fun.

For those who cannot afford such luxuries, quite a different situation exists. Within the large cities, in many suburban communities and in rural settings, there still exists a severe shortage of meaningful and attractive recreational opportunities. A recently issued report, *Comparative Recreation Needs and Services in New York Neighborhoods*, published by the Research Department of the Community Council of Greater New York,³⁴ makes clear that

1. Recreation and group work services are unevenly distributed throughout the city. For example, 12 per cent of the neighborhoods contain 53 per cent of park and recreation acreage.

2. Minority groups and low income residents are no longer concentrated in a few areas which were locales for the settlement of immigrants years ago, and which have adequate recreation and group work services. Six new neighborhoods have been identified as being in extreme need of community supported recreation services.

3. A relatively small proportion of the city's population uses certain community supported recreation services. For example, on an average spring day, only 10 per cent of the city's youth, age 6 to 18, use playgrounds. Membership in all neighborhood full-time recreation centers comprises just under 4 per cent of the city's total population. Only 8 per cent of this group are aged persons.

This clearly suggests that for a major segment of the American population—and New York's situation is similar to that of a number of large urban centers—the problem is not one of *too much* recreation. Instead, it is one of not having *enough* recreational opportunity, with effective leadership, properly organized programs, and conveniently located facilities.

Areas of Need in Recreation Programming

Specifically, the following special areas require a heightened level of concern and community support: (1) the needs of youth,

particularly of urban depressed youth; (2) the needs of the aging and aged population; (3) the more effective use of recreation in meeting the needs of the ill and handicapped, particularly in the prevention, cure, and after-care of mental illness, and in enriching the lives of the mentally retarded; (4) the use of recreation to promote a higher level of physical fitness for all age segments of the population; and (5) the construction of recreational resources and opportunities, especially in large cities.

NEEDS OF YOUTH. According to a 1961 report of the Congressional Juvenile Delinquency Sub-Committee, there has been a continued rise in juvenile delinquency in recent years. The number of cases reported was 177 per cent higher than in 1959, involving a total of 773,000 juvenile court cases and two-thirds of a million children from 10 to 17 years old. Interestingly, while the large cities are still by far the greatest producers of delinquents, there was a marked rise in delinquency in both suburban and rural areas, with a suggestion that the crime rate among children in white-collar families is rising. The report states:

National and state policy officials report that there are increasing occurrences of vandalism, muggings, burglaries, larcenies and crowd disturbances emanating from the ranks of those who have no reason for committing these crimes except for so-called thrills. In particular, traffic in narcotics and narcotics addiction among children was at an all-time high in the United States.³⁷

What does this suggest?

These youngsters are looking for excitement and a kind of self-fulfillment that they have not found in other, community-approved leisure associations and activities. They find important values of security and loyalty in their gang ties. Frequently, they feel alienated from the adult society and find it impossible to accept its standards and controls, or even to communicate meaningfully with adult figures. The threat of forceful repression or the fear of violence means very little to them.

That recreation can make a contribution in this potentially explosive situation was attested to by the Reverend C. Kilmer Myers, vicar for seven years of the Lower East Side Mission of Trinity Episcopal Parish in New York City, after a serious outbreak of teen-age violence in that slum neighborhood: "The people will not listen to the plea that the desperate needs of youth be

met with adequate services. It is easier to punish. One important requirement is supervised recreation—sports programs and club-houses that would enable the youngsters to develop under the watchful eyes of trained personnel.”³⁸

There is a need, of course, to integrate such recreation programs closely with police, social workers, and community organizations of every type. While it is not necessary for recreation, as an intrinsically important and legitimate community welfare function, to justify itself in terms of combating juvenile delinquency, it can clearly be a very significant part of the total community approach to working with high-delinquency areas or groups that present special problems.

NEEDS OF THE AGED. The number of older persons has multiplied fivefold in the United States thus far in the twentieth century. The aged were 4 per cent of the population in 1900, and are over 9 per cent of it today. In 1963, there were nearly 18 million persons over sixty-four. When the average person retires today at the age of sixty-five, he is faced by the prospect of 30,000 hours of leisure time ahead. He quickly realizes that the prop—work—which has lent security and purpose to his life thus far no longer supports him. His role as parent, friend, and neighbor frequently changes with advancing years. Retirement may represent the loss of financial independence and is likely to be accompanied by health problems. Within this context, it is necessary for the older person to discover a new group of interests that will prove satisfying to him, and that will continue to give his life purpose. Activities that formerly were viewed as peripheral will now have to be seen as the most important.³⁹

Faced by this challenge, many older persons find reassurance and purpose in social and religious involvement, travel, games and sports activities suited to their physical abilities, reading, art, music, community service, and membership in groups of other senior citizens. Others, who have never learned the arts of leisure and who are not helped to find available services, may find only boredom and a sense of uselessness; they are too often permitted to decline into an unhappy and premature senility.

The official recommendations of the 1961 White House Conference on the Aging⁴⁰ stressed that a wide variety of new programs for the aged need to be established by public agencies, churches,

service clubs, and other community organizations. In addition, more people now realize that it is in younger adulthood and middle age that preparation for the use of leisure in later years must be made. Otherwise, the adjustment to retirement proves an insurmountable barrier for far too many older citizens.

MENTAL ILLNESS AND MENTAL RETARDATION. Anderson points out that mental health services cost \$1.5 billion yearly and that the costs are rising by \$100 million each year. There are over 700,000 patients in mental hospitals, and out-patient clinics have three- to six-month waiting lists.⁴¹ As Menninger, Martin, and other authorities on mental illness have commented, the ability to relax and enjoy one's leisure and to participate in satisfying recreational activities is closely attached to sound mental health.

Over the past two decades, there has been an increasing use of therapeutic recreation services in hospitals for the mentally ill. These serve varied purposes: (1) to help severely withdrawn patients begin to take an interest in themselves and their surroundings through simple, nonthreatening manipulative activities; (2) to encourage resocialization; (3) to provide outlets for impulses of aggression and hostility; (4) to yield pleasure in accomplishment rather than failure, and in the growth of personal skills; (5) to provide and reinforce important social traits, such as cooperation, group awareness, sensitivity to others, and a realistic view of one's own social behavior; and (6) to establish patterns of recreational involvement and interests that will carry over to life in the community, when the patient has been discharged.

In an increasing number of cities, efforts are being made to have hospitalized patients become involved in suitable community recreation activities while under treatment. The day of the huge mental hospital that is tightly insulated from the outside world (like the medieval "pesthouse") is drawing to a close. Similarly, a number of communities have experimented with what might be called "halfway-houses" for discharged mental patients. Here, either in special centers or clubs within *larger community centers*, they participate in carefully supervised activities and social programs designed to meet their needs during a period of transition to fuller independence.

To the extent that it provides healthy socialization and creatively satisfying leisure experiences for all youth and adults, organized

recreation can be used to help *prevent* mental illness. When, as is frequently the case, disturbed children and adults appear in community recreation groups, it is possible to recognize them and provide services that, applied early enough, may avert more serious illness.

MENTAL RETARDATION. Recently, there has been recognition of the need for recreation services for the five to six million retarded children and adults in our population today. Of this number, more than 95 per cent live as independent or semi-independent individuals in their home communities. Most recreation agencies are closed to them, and it is necessary for their families to provide them with social and recreation activities.⁴²

There are now, however, beginning efforts to offer recreation services for the 200,000 who are institutionalized and the larger group living in the community. In 1962, a special conference on recreation for mentally retarded children was held at Teachers College, Columbia University, co-sponsored by Comeback, Inc., and the National Association for Retarded Children. In the following year, two workshops in recreation programming for the retarded were held at Columbia. It has been found that among those mildly retarded individuals who are employable in certain types of jobs, a major problem has been to develop social competence and constructive use of leisure time. Experiments in recreation services are today being carried on in vocational training centers for such adolescents and young adults. Increasing efforts are being made to integrate retarded individuals (where feasible) in existing recreation programs, or to develop special programs when necessary.

Such programs, whether their purpose be to improve vocational competence, develop potential abilities, or simply improve the quality of living for a group that too often has been condemned to a barren and hopeless kind of existence, provide a challenge that cannot be ignored by thoughtful citizens.

RECREATION AND PHYSICAL FITNESS. Since the late 1940's there has been an uncomfortable and growing public awareness that, as a consequence of mechanized living, a penchant for over-eating, a lack of strenuous exercise, and inadequate programs of physical education, American youth has been growing increasingly "soft."

As recently as 1960, a test comparing United States children between the ages of ten and 17, with those of England, Scotland, Wales, and Cyprus, found the Americans trailing in almost every component of physical fitness. It even found that, in the test for endurance for sustained physical activity, British girls in the ten to 11 age bracket exceeded American boys. The test, carried on by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, showed the British boys finishing an average of 14 per cent higher than American boys, for all tests and at all ages. The British girls finished 23 per cent higher than American girls. The test items covered arm strength and power, speed and agility, leg power, and endurance for sustained activity.⁴³

President Kennedy's Council on Youth Fitness pointed out, in 1962, the need for an expanded and intensified program of physical activity in the schools. The Council stated that at least 60 per cent of the nation's school children do not participate in a daily program of vigorous physical activity, and that the average rate of failure in minimum achievement physical tests is almost twice as high in schools without physical education programs, as those with.

It is recognized also that physical education programs, by themselves, will not do the job. It is necessary to have a carry-over from formal classes to intramural and recreational participation, if physical fitness goals are to be reached. Among the recommendations⁴⁴ of the Council on Youth Fitness, briefly stated, were these:

1. *Intramural sports for all boys and girls in Grades 4 to 12 should be conducted under competent leadership.* The extended school day, noon hours, weekends, and vacation periods should be replete with a variety of organized teams, leagues, and tournaments. These should be as skillfully planned and as attractive and valuable to pupils as the interscholastic sports program.

2. *Interscholastic athletics should be available for the athletically gifted youth.* Opportunities should be broadened to include more sports, more teams, more participants.

3. *Sports and fitness clubs for both boys and girls should be organized in such activities as hiking, cycling, camping, skating, skiing, aquatic activities, gymnastics, dance, and shooting.* These and other activities can be incorporated into school and com-

munity recreation programs. Cooperation between school and public recreation programs is essential.

4. *Opportunities for informal physical recreation should be encouraged, and sponsored by schools at all available periods.*

THREE POINTS PERTAINING TO COUNCIL'S RECOMMENDATIONS

First, there is obviously more to fitness than the ability to perform a number of stunts successfully, or to score high on a test of *organic status*. Total fitness includes emotional well-being and social adjustment as well. There is no single standard of physical fitness to which all may aspire; this depends on one's own structure and on the physical demands which are likely to be placed upon one as part of daily living. Physical fitness has been much *oversold* in terms of the military needs of the nation in a period of international tension, based on a set of rather misleading statistics of draft rejections in World War II. It has been *undersold* in terms of the important effects it has on one's total personality—the feelings of vitality, vigor, and well-being that accrue from active living and playing.

Second, the need for more fitness extends not only to youth but to older Americans, those in their twenties and thirties, and, with moderation, those in middle and older age brackets. A crash program of "fifty-mile hikes," while it may make headlines for a month or two, is not the solution. Instead, regular participation in sensible, pleasurable physical recreation must be encouraged to achieve the desired goals.

Third, a concern about physical fitness should not permit us to think narrowly about recreation as being primarily a matter of physical recreation, sports, and games. These represent only a portion of recreation programing, and do not meet other important leisure needs.

Constriction of Recreational Opportunity

A major area of recreational need in the American society today derives from the changing face of the country—the physical swallowing up of our natural environment by highways, suburban

home developments, industrial growth, and urban sprawl and blight.

This was dramatically illustrated in a news story during the fall of 1962. A seven-year-old California boy, Scott Turner, had written President Kennedy, telling how he had gone out to hunt lizards in a canyon near his home, only to find that the land had been taken over for a housing project. In his childish spelling, Scott asked the President to do something about it.

The letter was forwarded to Secretary of the Interior Udall, who replied:

President Kennedy and I have a great awareness of the needs you feel—the need to be able to hunt lizards and follow ants and maybe just lie in the sun on your back and watch the changing shapes of clouds—all alone. We are trying to do just what you asked—to “set aside some land” where you can play—not in groups with supervision, but just roaming around by yourself and finding out how you relate to the earth and the sky. It’s a thing you can only do by yourself and it’s a very important thing.⁴⁵

As the previous chapter has indicated, the recommendations of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, the establishment of a Bureau of Outdoor Recreation within the Department of the Interior, and a number of other federal and state programs offer encouragement in this field. Perhaps even more perplexing and more disastrous in its implications (because less is being done about it) is the problem of recreation and leisure for youth in our large cities. Here one sees vividly the constriction of physical opportunities for play. In *Growing Up Absurd*, Paul Goodman writes:

There is probably a point of complexity at which, cut off from the country, the city ceases to advance, beyond country backwardness; it becomes impractical. . . . In New York, even the Hudson River and its ships are cut off by impassable through-highways, and stupid planning has provided a mile of child-useless landscaping, so that few kids get down to the river any more to fish. The newer high dwellings make the streets inaccessible to small children. . . . The very space has been crushingly pre-empted. The cars in New York seem finally to have discouraged many of the ball games; we see boys going a mile to find a Sunday-deserted parking lot when previously they played on their own street with the small children chosen in. With increasing traffic, the policing is more strict. . . .⁴⁶

Goodman points out that all the forms of informal neighborhood recreation—skating, bicycling, playing games on stoops—are impractical in today's large cities. He concludes that loss of neighborhood traditions, increased family mobility, poor city planning, and loss of play spaces mean that the city can no longer be dealt with practically by children. His comments about the largest metropolis may be applied to smaller cities, which have comparable problems of congestion, slum areas, and urban renewal that have brought new dislocations. What is called for—and what has not been evidenced—is a real recognition of the need. In most cases, the city-planning process has simply not been dominated by human concerns.

This failure is seen by John Kenneth Galbraith as part of a broader disinterest, that is, the unwillingness to solve the imbalance between our private and public needs and expenditures. In *The Affluent Society*, Galbraith makes the point that we, as a nation, have been willing to spend tremendous amounts, *privately*, to purchase opulent luxury goods and services. We are unwilling, he says, to spend a sufficiently high proportion of our income for essential *public services*. He writes that

. . . an aspect of increasing private production is the appearance of an extraordinary number of things which lay claim to the interest of the young. Motion pictures, television, automobiles, and the vast opportunities which go with the automobile, together with such less enchanting merchandise as narcotics, comic books and pornographia, are all included in an advancing gross national product. The child of a less opulent as well as a technologically more primitive age had far fewer diversions. . . .⁴⁷

Galbraith suggests that in a well-organized community, with a strong school system, recreational opportunities and effective police force, these diversionary forces operating on modern youth may do no great damage. The social, athletic, dramatic, and other activities of the school and community serve to hold his attention and counteract the less desirable attractions, and to minimize the tendency to delinquency. But, he says, in a community where public services have failed to keep abreast of private consumption, things are quite different:

Here, in an atmosphere of private opulence and public squalor, the private goods have full sway. Schools do not compete with television and

the movies. . . . The hot rod and the wild ride take the place of more sedentary sports for which there are inadequate facilities or provision. Comic books, alcohol, narcotics and switchblade knives are, as noted, part of the increased flow of goods, and there is nothing to dispute their enjoyment.⁴³

In 1963, Federal Judge Luther W. Youngdahl, at a meeting of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, stated that the annual cost of state institutional care of a juvenile was \$4,000.⁴⁴ Thus, ultimately the cost to the state is many times greater than it would have been if essential public services to prevent social ills were provided when they might have been most effective.

The Challenge Today

What does all this come to? First, in terms of a reappraisal of our leisure and recreational patterns in the United States (recognizing that the rather glossy view presented in Chapter One does not present the full story) we see that

1. Much of our leisure is dominated by mass-produced, commercially promoted depersonalized forms of recreational activity.
2. The great bulk of entertainment and stimulation offered by the mass media tends to involve an extremely low level of taste and significance.
3. Excessive amounts of our time continue to be expended in passive, spectator-gearred pursuits.
4. There is insufficient concern with the essential values and outcomes of recreational experience.
5. Leisure for many becomes a rat race of meaningless activity, in which they are driven by a "fun morality" and thoughtless desire to conform, while for many others there is a completely inadequate provision of leisure services.

Based on these observations, it becomes apparent that we as a nation need to become more fully aware of the role of leisure and recreation in modern society, and to attempt to resolve the conflict in values and inequities in service that have been described. Public concern must be stimulated, the present situation thoughtfully appraised, and a concept of leisure developed that transcends

outmoded views and comes to grips with the real concerns of today.

Who will take the lead in this process?

The professional group that has been most closely associated with problems of leisure and the provision of recreative services is, of course, the recreation leader and administrator. Are such individuals equipped by training and experience to deal with the broad problems of leisure and to spearhead an aroused public concern? The fact is that too many recreation professionals, although they include a host of capable and intelligent workers, are not people who have been educated liberally, in the sense of having had broad training in the humanities, social sciences, the arts, philosophy, and psychology. Many practitioners who have been in the field for a number of years have developed their competence on the job, having obtained positions in the first place through direct practical skills, or related experience.

Many others who enter the field today have had college training in physical education, or in a recreation major within a physical education department. As a consequence—and there are notable exceptions to this—such practitioners frequently have a rather narrow view of the scope of the leisure field and conduct programs that are heavily weighted with sports and games.

It is true that the major professional and service organizations in the field, particularly the National Recreation Association, have made strenuous efforts in recent years to broaden both the practitioner's and the public's understanding of recreation and leisure, and to enrich the program content of community recreation. In particular, they have urged increased emphasis on the arts and other forms of cultural activity.

However, when one examines the professional affiliations and tasks of community recreation executives as a class, they must be viewed as civil employees who are not as concerned with the process of human growth and involvement, with the values and outcomes of leisure experience, as they are with the efficient operation of community services. To illustrate, a marked trend in the field of public recreation is the linkage of park and recreation functions. Obviously, they are closely allied, and thus the American Institute of Park Executives includes many individuals who are responsible, fully or in part, for programs of community recreation. In a recent survey issued by the American Institute of

Park Executives,⁶⁰ its members were asked to specify the amounts of time they devoted to certain tasks. These were administration (records, budgets, office management); long-range planning; activities programing; supervising maintenance; staff counseling and in-service training; public relations (speaking engagements, and so on); animal acquisition; and new land acquisition and construction.

Clearly, these are all important duties for a municipal director of parks, or parks and recreation. They do not suggest, however, that the majority of professional practitioners in this field are likely to have the inclination or opportunity to do much pioneer thinking or assume the role of community leadership in coming to grips with the new meaning of leisure.

Who will then?

It appears likely that, because of its complexity, this will be a joint responsibility of many individuals and organizations. Obviously, this will include recreation leaders and administrators and recreation educators in colleges and universities. In addition, religious leaders, social workers, law enforcement officials, and other civic or governmental employees will be involved. In terms of carrying out needed research and publishing the findings, scholars and investigators within the disciplines of sociology, economics, philosophy, psychology, and aesthetics will all have a contribution to make.

Beyond this, as America comes to grips with the problems of the new leisure, it will recognize that the public schools, more than any other resource in the community, will be in a strategic position to shape desirable leisure values and to help promote the most effective kinds of recreational participation.

This is *not* a new thought; it is half a century old. Yet it has not, to this day, been widely accepted or effectively implemented. The following chapters are devoted to its exploration.

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3

Perspectives on Leisure Education

The education which is not also recreation is a maimed, incomplete, half-done thing. The recreation which is not also education has no re-creative value.¹

L. P. JACKS

LEISURE AND RECREATION have now been established as representing major concerns today for all agencies involved in the field of social service—and particularly for the public schools. It is appropriate at this point to examine the nature of the relationship between the two fields, to determine whether the task of leisure education is indeed a legitimate function of modern education and, if so, what forms it should most logically take. At the outset, four points of relationship may be briefly described:

1. *Recreation and education have certain important functions and outcomes in common.* This is most easily illustrated in primitive societies in which play-like activities are carried on for the purpose of acculturation; skills and personal qualities are taught through play, and it serves as a means of testing before admission to the adult society. In our own culture, we see clearly that recreation shares many common purposes with education. While not concerned about the teaching of basic skills, it certainly affords opportunity to practice them in interesting and highly motivated activities. By making possible advanced hobby or club experiences in a number of clearly academic areas, it brings increased knowledge and interest to them. In addition, recreation contributes to a number of important goals of education: personal and social growth, good citizenship, physical and creative outcomes.

2. *The school itself presents many activities which, enjoyed in another setting, would be clearly perceived as recreational.* This is particularly true in elementary schools where children play games and sports, engage in artistic, musical, and dramatic activities, go on trips and have club programs—all as part of the curriculum. It is also true in secondary schools, where the co-curricular program includes clubs, intramural and interscholastic athletics, choral and instrumental music groups, student government, student publications, and social activities. All of these are voluntarily chosen, enjoyable activities participated in under the sponsorship of the school.

3. *Since 1918, leading professional organizations in the field of education have accepted the teaching of leisure skills and attitudes as an important goal of education.* This was first proposed in "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," the 1918 report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Schools of the National Education Association. It has since been reaffirmed

and amplified in educational publications during the 1920's and 1930's and particularly after World War II, in the detailed policy statements of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators.

4. *The majority of public school systems in the United States sponsor or co-sponsor programs of community recreation, or cooperate with other public agencies that do.* Chapter Seven outlines this relationship in great detail and the author's 1962 survey has thrown new light upon it. In the 1961 *Parks and Recreation Yearbook*, 10 per cent of community recreation programs were identified as being sponsored by school authorities; clearly, the number of programs receiving the cooperation of school systems is much greater. This supports the position that both leisure and recreation are part of the school's legitimate sphere of interest.

Before analyzing these points in greater detail, it is necessary to make clear that they are not all universally accepted, nor have they been effectively implemented to the present day.

The extent to which recreation and education are integrally linked and serve to supplement and enrich each other is part of the continuing debate on present-day educational practice. The attacks on the "life-adjustment" curriculum and so-called "frills" of education are based on a conviction that the content of education should be much more sharply defined within narrow academic limits.

Similarly, there has been no unanimous acceptance of the leisure education function of the schools. By no means do all educational authorities subscribe to this. On the final point, many school administrators resent the assumption that the school has an obligation to conduct or cooperate in the sponsorship of community recreation programs, or to assist in other ways. Frequently, they see the function as one which is not their chief concern, and for which they are poorly equipped. A considerable majority of those who have been professionally trained in recreation, or who hold responsible community positions in recreation, agree with them.

Each of these points will therefore require careful analysis, in this and later chapters. The fundamental thesis presented here, however, is that there is a logical bond between recreation and

education. It is the task of both recreation administrators and educators to define this relationship, and to take fullest advantage of the opportunities it offers for enrichment of both programs and the improvement of practices in both fields.

The Relationship Between Recreation and Education

The point has been widely made that both recreation and education are concerned with many of the same kinds of experiences and subject areas, and seek to accomplish similar outcomes. If one accepts that it is the task of education to develop the essential competencies needed for effective citizenship, economic independence, and family adjustment, then one must recognize the values of group living and the inculcation of desirable values and ways of behaving that come from constructive, satisfying recreation experiences.

Within each area of formal academic study, it is possible for students to become involved in fascinating *leisure-time experiences* which add much to classroom learning. The child who develops an interest in biology, chemistry, or botany, who has collections and carries on experiments in his own home, and who attends science clubs, subscribes to magazines, and makes field trips has found a rewarding recreational outlet for his academic interest. He may be able to go much further, through such recreational experiences, than he would in the classroom situation, where other children might not share his intensive dedication.

The same is clearly true of the study of language. The fundamental skills of reading and writing which are learned in the early elementary grades are constantly tested, sharpened, and reinforced in the child's leisure-time reading experience. Such voluntary leisure pursuits as writing for school newspapers or magazines give him the incentive to further improve his skills, and to discover his creative talents.

What other school activities are there? Music? Art? Sports? Dance? Each of these obviously can be the focus of a student's recreational interest, and, within his leisure time, may add to his total learning experience. In a broader sense, as the child reads, goes to movies or the theater, travels, has club experiences, goes

to museums, or pursues a hobby, he becomes more fully involved with the world. He gains all sorts of information. He corroborates his understanding or dispels misunderstanding. He sees real life and has real experience. To be most effective, education must be part of life, rather than artificially separated from it. There are many ways of learning, and education implies many kinds of growth.

Thus, it is not possible or logical to rigidly separate education and recreation from each other. The chief distinction between them is that education is a somewhat more formal, required experience, in which priority is clearly given to the learning of skills and in which the individual is expected to achieve certain levels of competence and to meet standards of performance or ability. On the other hand, recreation is informal, voluntary, and less explicit in terms of desired standards or outcomes. When teachers are able to make their formal school subjects so interesting and stimulating that formal education becomes intensely satisfying, it also becomes *like* recreation. Similarly, when the quality and range of the recreational experience improves, it has clearly educational outcomes. This is what L. P. Jacks means when he writes: "The education which is not also recreation is a maimed, incomplete, half-done thing. The recreation which is not also education has no re-creative value. . . ."²

Recreation has certain special qualities which make it particularly valuable as a medium of education. It is under most circumstances voluntarily chosen; therefore, the participant is in a state of readiness, with no compulsion or artificial motivation necessary to promote his interest. Under such circumstances, and recognizing that recreation is usually enjoyable and interesting, favorable learning is more likely to take place than in settings marked by compulsion and lack of interest. Since many recreational situations are strongly emotionalized, and since they usually involve practical applications, they may be able to provide more directly meaningful learnings than educational experiences which are of a theoretical nature.

Obviously, not every educational goal may be approached in a recreational manner; nor are all recreational experiences necessarily educative. It is when the two are blended, as Jacks points out, that the highest form of experience is achieved.

In exploring the relationship between recreation and education,

it is interesting to note that in earlier cultures a high degree of emphasis was given to activities which had a recreational character within the total program of education.

Recreation and Education in Earlier Cultures

ANCIENT GREECE

In the fifth century B.C., the chief objective of Athenian education was to develop an ideally balanced citizen who was soldier, athlete, artist, statesman, and philosopher, all wrapped into one. Play as an art form, according to Sappho and Mitchell, was exalted and was made an integral part of education and of daily living. Indeed, the two major emphases of education were gymnastics and music. In the *palaestra*, or school of gymnastics, the activities included free play, dancing, swimming, boxing, wrestling, running, leaping, and hurling the discus and javelin. All of these were considered essential to the education of an Athenian citizen. In the teaching of music, writing, singing, reading, and the use of the lyre and flute were included.

There was full recognition that the play of children is important and must be properly directed. Thus, Plato wrote: "Education should begin with the right direction of children's sports. The plays of childhood have a great deal to do with the maintenance or non-maintenance of laws. . . ."³

THE AGE OF CHIVALRY

After a period of time in which play was discouraged and viewed as sinful, Jenny points out that during the Age of Chivalry, attention was given to recreational activities in training the boy of noble birth to become a knight. Thus,

. . . through the guidance of the lady of the manor he learned to read, sing, play musical instruments, dance, and perform other activities. These skills which he learned were necessary for the adult social activities of the times. . . . Tennis, marbles, chess, and other activities were

part of his daily recreation. As a squire . . . he was transferred to another "school." Now under the watchful eye of a knight . . . he learned to ride, use weapons of war, take care of armor, and to discipline himself for the rigors of hand to hand battle. . . .⁴

THE RENAISSANCE

In the Age of the Renaissance, one of the early Italian humanists, Pietro Vergerio, pointed out man's need of recreation. In his *De Ingenius Moribus et Liberalis*, he clearly stated that man was not constituted to labor steadily, without the respite of recreation. Both Pope Pius II and Martin Luther extolled the place of recreation in giving man the relaxation necessary to achieve true harmony of mind and body.⁵ Accordingly, the Renaissance courtier was trained in all the manly arts and performing skills that were part of the recreational life of the court. He danced, sang, acted, composed, fenced, hunted, hawked, and rode; none of these were deemed unworthy preoccupations either in his education or in his adult life.

Such studies were not concerned primarily with pleasure, but rather with the ultimate end of education, which was producing an individual who might take his place in society with all the needed accomplishments and qualities. Thus, in an eighteenth-century treatise on the education of woman, published in Philadelphia, one finds:

Merely ornamental accomplishments will but indifferently qualify a woman to perform the *duties* of life, though it is highly proper she should possess them, in order to furnish the *amusements* of it. Yet, though the well-bred woman should learn to dance, sing, recite, and draw; the end of a good education is not that they may become singers, dancers, players, or painters; its real object is, to make them good daughters, good wives, good mistresses, good members of society and good Christians.⁶

With respect to the obligatory character of recreation (as a social responsibility), Marks refers to an incident that characterized the Philadelphia Assembly in 1781; " 'Come, miss, have a care what you are doing,' shouted the Master of Ceremonies to a damsel who was permitting a bit of gossip to interrupt her turn in a contradance. 'Do you think you are here for your own pleasure?' " ⁷

In general, the spread of free public education in the United States was characterized by curricula that were heavily weighted with academic disciplines and basic skills. These were taught in an authoritarian, drill-like fashion, without concern for creative outcomes, and certainly with little concern about possible recreational benefits for the pupils. When art was introduced to the curriculum in many schools, it was justified on the basis of the vocational *usefulness* of good draughtsmanship. Vocal music was sometimes supported because it supposedly strengthened the lungs and thereby helped avert the threat of tuberculosis. In some New England seminaries for young ladies, dance was introduced to help the pupils keep warm in the winter, in unheated school buildings. The purpose of such subjects was clearly utilitarian.

Trends in American Public Education

In time, however, certain developments took place in American schools based on (1) a changing view of the purpose of education and the scope of appropriate educational experience; and (2) an expanded conception of the social role of the school, and its function in community life. Underlying them were the gradual development of modern theories of personality, and considerable experimentation carried on both here and abroad in methods of education.

PLAY AS A MEDIUM OF EDUCATION. Based on the earlier work of Friedrich Froebel in Germany, Elizabeth Peabody organized a school for young children in Boston in 1860. Here she made extensive use of games and singing, planting of small gardens, physical exercises indoors and out, story-telling, and all sorts of *improvisation and creative play* on the part of children.

In John Dewey's Laboratory School, founded in Chicago in 1896, a normal day's activity consisted of conversation, construction work, stories, songs, games, trips, dramatic re-enactments in school of what children had seen on trips, and various other kinds of *creative handiwork and experiences*.⁸ As a consequence of the increasing interest in experimental psychology and the developing field of child study, children's art was now examined not so much

for its technical excellence, but rather for what it told of the pupil's intellectual and emotional growth. At the 1894 meeting of the N.E.A. Art Department, for example, the president of this group commented, "Of course, these illustrations by little children are, from an artistic standpoint, simply ridiculous; still educationally, they are priceless. . . ."

As the so-called progressive education movement got up steam, a number of experimental schools were established which placed great reliance on play activities as essential to creative growth. These schools based their approaches on a number of concepts which gained recognition during the early 1900's: (1) the *whole child*; one did not teach the intellectual side of a youngster only, but also his emotional, social, and physical aspects, which were all interrelated; (2) *learning by doing*, which meant that the most meaningful kind of educational experience was that which involved real, direct experiences (associated with the idea that education was not just preparation for future living, but should be vital, meaningful living in its own right); (3) acceptance of *individual differences*, which meant that every child had different interests and abilities and maturation levels, and that therefore classes could not be taught in a completely uniform way; and (4) the value of *nonacademic experiences*, which supplemented more formal learnings.

Obviously, play-like activities were ideal for implementing these educational emphases and beliefs. Thus, in one of the most famous of the early progressive schools, the Play School in New York City (later to be known as the City and Country School), Cremin writes that the effort from the beginning was

. . . to afford the children as rich a variety of first-hand experiences as possible—trips to parks, stores, zoos, the harbor, etc.—and then to provide them with play materials—blocks, clay, paints, boxes, toys, and the like—through which they might imaginatively portray what they had experienced. The usual ingredients of an elementary education were there; reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, the arts, and physical education were present; but the teaching situations themselves remained unstructured and unpatterned.⁹

Along with the reorganization of the formal curriculum, there was a corresponding expansion of the extracurriculum, or, as it

came to be known, the co-curriculum. All the informal student clubs and activities that had been radical innovations at the turn of the century became established features of the American school (they expanded steadily until, in the 1950's, they in turn became the subject of vigorous attacks by educational reformers). The total view of the school's purpose was expanded to include occupational competence, citizenship, community living, personal adjustment, ethical values, and social adjustment. Throughout, activities that were directly or indirectly play-like, were brought into the curriculum.

THE CHANGING SOCIAL ROLE OF THE SCHOOL. A second major influence upon the schools came about because of social needs in large cities, where there were many underprivileged children and youth, or numbers of immigrant groups that had come recently to this country. The way was pointed for the schools by pioneering settlement houses in Chicago and New York City, which established clubs; language classes; dramatic, choral, and music schools; English and citizenship classes; and many useful courses in home-making and industrial arts. Cremin points out that the schools were urged to transcend their traditional limitations and become all-day neighborhood centers coordinating the task of Americanizing immigrants and providing community services. He writes:

"The schools," argued one widely distributed pamphlet, "should be the wheel upon which all other activities may turn. This means that they will have to realize that education does not consist merely of book learning." Local boards were to turn schoolhouses into neighborhood centers for every sort and variety of community activity; the school would be meeting place, public forum, recreation house, civic center, home of all formal and informal education.¹⁰

Such pressures had their effect. As Chapter Seven describes in detail, the schools accepted the responsibility for providing community services in the form of adult education programs and recreation programs for people of all ages. Because of this, and of the expanded curriculum itself, school buildings were modified to provide needed facilities: gymnasiums, swimming pools, playgrounds, athletic fields, shops, kitchens, cafeterias, assembly halls—and the kinds of movable furniture and room partitions that would permit flexible use of space for a variety of activities.

A Proposal for Leisure Education

While a number of earlier, scattered references had been made to leisure as a concern of the schools, and a number of school systems had taken first steps to provide community recreation services, it was not until 1918 that a major policy statement was issued in this area. Obviously, the cause was the convergence of the availability of leisure (then largely viewed as a social problem) and the increased acceptance by the school of its new social role.

Thus, in 1918, the *Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary School Education* of the National Education Association issued a bulletin, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education."¹¹ Published by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior, the report contained a discussion of leisure which is worth quoting extensively:

Aside from the immediate discharge of these specific duties [home membership, vocation, and citizenship], every individual should have a margin of time for the cultivation of personal and social interests. This leisure, if worthily used, will recreate his powers and enlarge and enrich life, thereby making him better able to meet his responsibilities. The unworthy use of leisure impairs health, disrupts home life, lessens vocational efficiency and destroys civic-mindedness. The tendency in industrial life, aided by legislation, is to decrease the working hours of large groups of people. While shortened hours tend to lessen the harmful reactions that arise from prolonged strain, they increase, if possible, the importance of preparation for leisure. In view of these considerations, education for the worthy use of leisure is of increasing importance as an objective.¹²

In a discussion of the worthy use of leisure, the report states:

Education should equip the individual to secure from his leisure the re-creation of body, mind and spirit, and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality. This objective calls for the ability to utilize the common means of enjoyment, such as music, art, literature, drama, and social intercourse, together with the fostering in each individual of one or more special avocational interests. Heretofore the high school has given little conscious attention to this objective. It has so exclusively sought intellectual discipline that it has seldom treated literature, art, and music so as to evoke right emotional response and produce positive

enjoyment. Its presentation of science should aim, in part, to arouse a genuine appreciation of nature.

The school has failed also to organize to direct the social activities of young people as it should. One of the surest ways in which to prepare pupils worthily to utilize leisure in adult life is by guiding and directing their use of leisure in youth. The school should, therefore, see that adequate recreation is provided both within the school and by proper agencies in the community. The school, however, has a unique opportunity in this field. . . .¹³

In the years following, recurrent policy statements made it clear that leisure education had become accepted as an important objective of public education. In 1933, Eugene Lies, on assignment for the National Recreation Association, carried out an extensive survey of leisure education practices and recreation sponsorship in America's schools.

In 1946, the report, "Policies for Education in American Democracy,"¹⁴ made a number of significant recommendations with respect to leisure education. More importantly, it redefined the role of the school and took a more sophisticated view of the role of recreation and leisure in society than the 1918 statement had done. It suggests that

. . . the school is not set apart from society on an academic hill. Teachers are more constantly and intimately connected with, or at least brought in contact with, things great and small in American society, than the members of any other profession, public or private. They must grapple with the distempers which society and individual conduct generate, while seeking to preserve and to disseminate the best that is in the culture. . . . The schools deal with the enduring stresses of human life, as well as with its enduring values. . . .¹⁵

In the document, four major groups of objectives for the schools are identified, dealing with the following: objectives of *self-realization*, of *human relationships*, of *economic efficiency*, and of *civic responsibility*. A number of references under each of these headings deal specifically with leisure. For example, under the objective of *self-realization*: "The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes. . . . The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure. . . . The educated person appreciates beauty. . . ." Under the objective of *human relationships*: "The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere and varied social life. . . . The educated person can work and play with others. . . ."¹⁶

The report argues convincingly that, under the stress of modern life, recreation has become a first cousin to health. It suggests that the truly educated individual needs to understand how to utilize both his working and leisure time to his maximum personal and social advantage. It comments that the American people have not learned how to relax, and states that material success has for too long been made our supreme objective in schools and elsewhere. It goes on to say:

The participant in recreation activities requires a certain mental and physical equipment which can be improved through education. The development of the physical skills, strength and agility necessary for participation in a variety of wholesome games and sports is an important aspect of education. The athletic and physical education programs of secondary schools and colleges are moving slowly and tardily toward a democratic basis which serves the entire group of students rather than being largely concentrated on a few favored individuals who "make the team." *This trend is wholesome; it should be accelerated and broadened.*¹⁷

A concluding statement to this section suggests the following:

None of these matters is unworthy of serious attention by schools which are earnestly concerned with the democratic ideal of helping each individual to grow in self-realization. These are extra-curriculum in name only; indeed it is to be doubted whether any elements of the "regular" curriculum are more truly educative than the activities associated with recreation. A shallow respect for false and harmful "standards" has in the past kept the recreative arts in the place of the poor relations. It is time to place them in a position of honor at the educational table.¹⁸

Without, at this point, attempting to assess how effectively the acceptance of leisure education as an objective of the schools was implemented by American educators, one would have to concede that the principle was widely supported.

Recent Examinations of American Education

Beginning in the late 1940's, however, and reaching a peak in the late 1950's, a number of influential critics of education published books that were widely read and influential in bringing

about a national debate on educational purpose and practice. These included such spokesmen as Albert Lynd, Arthur Bestor, I. L. Kandel, Paul Woodring, Admiral H. G. Rickover, and James Conant. While their charges covered many areas, their primary target was the philosophy of education which had prevailed during the previous three decades. Specifically, they urged re-examination of current practices with respect to curriculum content, co-curricular activity programs, teaching methodology and standards, teacher preparation, and teacher certification.

Many of their criticisms related directly to leisure education and to the ways in which the schools had tried to discharge this function. Woodring, for example, in characterizing the period of the 1930's and 1940's, wrote:

The high schools tried in a hundred ways to keep the students interested: easier courses, more "practical" courses, more varied offerings, individual guidance, dances, parties and other social activities supervised by the school, including extensive athletic programs and allowing high school credit for everything from social dancing to camping and fishing.¹⁹

Somewhat more moderate in his comments than a number of the other critics, Woodring concedes that the curriculum should include many activities which are not, strictly speaking, of an intellectual nature. However, he feels that these are not at the core of educational concern, and he expressed the view that the schools, while *de-emphasizing* academic competition, have *heightened* competition in athletics or in competing for places in the orchestra, choir, class play, social life, and school politics. Woodring addresses himself specifically to the goal of leisure education, in writing:

The classicist may himself be an ardent fisherman, a skilled dancer and popular in a social group; but he is convinced that courses in fishing, social dancing and "how to be popular" need not be offered in the school. These things can be learned by the individual from his parents or in his social environment. The learning of hobbies, taught as such, is poor preparation for adult life, for hobbies quickly go out of date. The best way to prepare a child for the wise use of leisure time is to teach him how to read. . . .²⁰

Much of the criticism published is valid and to the point. In his book, *American Education in the Twentieth Century*, I. L.

Kandel points out that, as a consequence of the expanded nature of education, from a clearly defined and reasonable set of tasks at the beginning of the century, by mid-century the teacher was expected to be a combination of psychiatrist, social scientist, scientist, an individual of considerable culture who was also a man of action, a hygienist, a guidance and welfare officer, and an expert in extracurricular activities.²¹ Bestor comments: "At the purely mechanical level, the glorification by the school of 'activities' and the acceptance by it of a multitude of social responsibilities largely unrelated to its educational task, have unloaded upon the teacher an almost impossible burden of petty and time-consuming tasks."²²

Bestor describes the central focus of education as providing sound training in the fundamental disciplines of history, science, mathematics, literature, and languages. While he accepts the goals of advancing moral conduct, responsible citizenship, and social adjustment as functions of education, he feels that the unique contribution which the school is best suited to make is in the area of intellectual training. This, he writes, has not been done with true scholarly discipline and purpose; instead, he charges, the schools have been excessively concerned with trivial problems of vocational and personal life.

Admiral Rickover, in *Education and Freedom*, writes, "The fantastic proliferation of nonacademic courses in our high schools is defended by educationists as necessary to adjust the majority of our children to life and to keep them in school until they are eighteen."²³ Referring to the "Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth," bulletin of the United States Office of Education (1951), Rickover quotes a newspaper comment that "it bears little resemblance to traditional programs and intellectual disciplines but amounts to making the school a sort of gigantic social-service agency aimed not at education but adjustment."²⁴ In another passage, he deals with the question of expense:

Good education is not cheap. However, an awful lot of money is currently being wasted in our schools. All communities ought to keep track of increases in child population and make early provision for new classrooms, teachers, and equipment. As long as we have a big deficit for proper support of our schools, ought we not to go over every item on our school's curriculum and equipment to check whether they are really necessary for a good school or can be spared, at least for the time

being? Courses for vocational, social and leisure-time preparation are usually more costly than those for mathematics, languages, or even science, despite the need for science laboratories. This is because these know-how courses depend on machinery and elaborate equipment, not on transmission of knowledge from mind to mind. Recently Robert M. Hutchins described one of our better high-school "palaces"—better in the sense of more costly and more luxurious equipment and "educational" installations. . . . Dr. Hutchins remarks, "Of the total teaching area not more than 25 per cent is devoted to anything that could be described as serious learning."²⁵

Effects of Mid-Century Debate on Education

As a consequence of the searching examination of American education at mid-century, there were the following outcomes. Increased emphasis was given to the teaching of the fundamental disciplines, particularly science and mathematics. In each of the fundamental subject areas, professional associations and study groups carried out a process of soul-searching and fundamental revision. Teacher education, under severe attack, became marked by a trend toward fewer courses in educational theory and methodology, and greater stress on competence in subject fields. Standards in teacher education were upgraded in many institutions. There was an increased use of programmed instruction and "teaching machines," and experiments with team teaching and teacher aids. Butts gave a capsule history of the transition, in the *National Educational Association Journal* for March, 1960. In the earlier period of reform, he writes:

All sorts of plans were devised to loosen up the formal curriculum and give it life and vitality—units, projects, activities, excursions and visits, handicrafts, gardens, laboratories, audiovisual aids, and much else—anything to overcome the slavish drill on the textbook or notebook. There was little doubt that the general quality of learning for most children was raised as the school added vitality and zest to the learning process.

But in the 1940's and 1950's a new set of "reformers" began to charge that the schools were too soft. Schools, they said, were just letting children play and not teaching them anything. Elementary schools

were exhorted to return to the three R's and stiffen up discipline and concentrate on intellectual studies. . . .

A general tightening of school methods was evident by 1960.²⁶

One of the prime targets for attack, it has been demonstrated, was the leisure education function of the school, and those elements in the curriculum which serve this function. Woodring refers to "social activities," courses in "how to be popular," the teaching of "hobbies," and the "wise use of leisure time," in unmistakable terms. Bestor characterizes the focus of much present-day education as "trivial problems of vocational and personal life." Rickover derides the school as having become a "sort of giant social service agency—aimed not at education but adjustment." The president of the author's own institution was widely quoted for a speech in which he publicly gave notice that intellectual competence must take priority over the idea that schools are centers of "entertainment, civic development and charitable enterprises."

Put in terms of courses in "how to be popular" and public "entertainment," leisure education is difficult to defend. Whether this is an accurate description of the fundamental, serious purposes of the schools with respect to leisure education (as well as other objectives relating to citizenship education, vocational education, and home and family life education, all under heavy attack) must be discussed at length. Whether, in a world as complex as ours, we can afford to focus on purely intellectual skills and academic disciplines and ignore other needs of children and the society in which they will have to function as adults is a question that cannot be lightly dismissed.

Specifically, however, have there been immediate and significant changes with respect to leisure education in American schools? This does not appear to have been the case. Nowhere has there been a ruthless pruning of co-curricular activities in secondary schools, for example. There does appear to have been a scattered tendency to downgrade or limit such activities. Gerald Van Pool reports the findings of a 1960 survey of 450 educators which suggest that an increasingly hard look is being taken at the co-curriculum. Among comments quoted are:

We do not believe it is the school's responsibility to substitute for the home and to fill with activities all the non-school hours of youth.

Some students are counseled out of activities by remarks such as "There's no time for that sort of thing," or "Scholarship at any price."

Scheduling has become difficult because of many added double periods of science and mathematics.

Van Pool also notes a move toward adding an extra period to school day in which to carry on activities, or in some cases an *insistence that they be held either before or after school, or in the evening.*²⁷

The author carried out a somewhat similar investigation, in 1960, of 200 educators in the arts (music, fine arts, dance, theater, and literature) in American schools and colleges. While the inquiry was not couched in terms of the effects of recent trends in educational policy upon leisure education as such, it had obvious implications for leisure education, because the arts are so frequently the focus of leisure activity.

The purpose of the investigation was to determine whether the recent pressures toward science and mathematics had influenced administrative or community attitudes toward the arts. It was found that this was not the case on the college level, where the arts in general enjoyed a high level of support. In secondary schools, however, 50 per cent of the responding teachers or department heads indicated that there were strong negative attitudes regarding the arts. Thirty-four per cent of them cited specific examples in which programs in the arts were slighted, including (1) use of existing facilities or planning of new facilities; (2) hiring and replacement of staff; and (3) patterns of required course work, accreditation, and counseling emphases.

A typical comment, in this case from a supervisor of fine arts in a California high school, was that ". . . the general community pressures are for math and science. While there is no decisive move to curtail art, the academically gifted student does feel the current pressures for 'academic' sources and therefore does not elect art or music. . . ." A music teacher in Texas reports that ". . . superior students have no time for music, because of added honors courses beginning in upper elementary school. . . . The loss has been not so much in actual enrollment in general music and choral music, but in a lowering of the quality of groups because of the loss of superior students to the inescapable pressures on those of higher academic aptitude. . . ."

While it is difficult to determine categorically that the arts *are* being deprived in every case cited (a teacher of mathematics might also claim that his area is being slighted because it has not

expanded sufficiently), it appears clear that, on the secondary level, there are increasingly strong pressures in favor of academic subjects, rigorously approached. At the same time, the climate of approval for participation in co-curricular activities in many schools appears to have cooled somewhat, if only because a student's time is necessarily limited and the primary goal of most capable students today is college admission in an increasingly competitive era.

Interestingly, the author's 1962 survey of school superintendents reveals that they continue to strongly support the value of co-curricular activities and that there have *not* been concerted community pressures against them.

Even within the atmosphere of wholesale criticism and revision of educational practice, it is worth noting that some authorities continue to support the inclusion of certain school subjects, particularly in the area of the arts, specifically because they have leisure value as carry-over activities.

Conant, for example, strongly urges that the school day be organized on a seven- or eight-period basis, so that the academically talented student will be able to take as many as four years of art and music—both extremely important in the development of avocational interests. At another point, while he decries marching bands, excessive social activities, and interscholastic athletics on the junior high school level, he supports the need for musical and dramatic activities, interest clubs, intramural athletics, and student council activities.²⁸

Another statement affirming support of a leisure focus in education is found in the 1960 yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. The problem of leisure is seen as presenting a major challenge for education in the world of tomorrow: "Recreation cannot any longer be considered a frill or a luxury. . . . It is incumbent on the curriculum planners to consider leisure-time habits, skills and attitudes as an integral part of the total preparation for future citizenship."²⁹

Reviewing the Objectives of Leisure Education

As we ask the question "What is the place of leisure education today?" it is apparent that no matter what proposals are made for

change in the American educational structure, we are not going to regress to a nineteenth-century approach to the curriculum. The American people are too firmly convinced of the value of today's diversified curriculum, the importance of creative experiences, and the needs of students which must be met through the schools. What is crucial is that much more precise definition be given to the objectives of leisure education and that the techniques used to achieve these objectives be carefully scrutinized and justified. It is difficult to defend an educational experience that is described as "public entertainment," or "courses in how to be popular." The real focus of leisure education is something much broader and more important than this. Paul Woodring offers an extremely useful statement:

Recreation is not in itself an educational aim, but it is proper for the school to prepare the child to choose those activities, recreational or otherwise, which are most worthwhile. This will ordinarily mean that he must have some experience with them, since an individual who is *unfamiliar with an activity is not really free to choose it*. If an individual has never heard a symphony or seen a ballet, he cannot choose between them. In the final analysis, the distinction between recreational and other activities is meaningless, for all life's activities and experiences are part of the whole and contribute to the same ends. . . .³⁰

While Woodring goes on to point out that all activities are not equally educative, or share the same level of priority within the curriculum, he clearly accepts the basic need to educate children and youth in terms of preparing them to spend their leisure time most fruitfully.

The question may legitimately be asked: "Accepting this need as a real one, is it the function of the school, or should it not be assumed by another community agency?" It may be helpful to examine a number of other, similar areas of education which pose the same problem. With respect to driver education, for example, John Keats, in *Schools Without Scholars* writes:

Despite what we might hear from some of our educators, we can hardly believe the school is the sole training ground of our youth in all things, and it does not take a giant mind to distinguish between an educational frippery and a bleak need. We can do it simply, like this:

Q. Do all our youth need to know how to drive cars?

A. In America today, it is virtually necessary to know how to drive,

- Q.* Is there any place other than the public school where this educational need may be met?
- A.* Of course. There are many places equally competent to teach driving. These include homes, automobile sales agencies, private driver training schools, youth organizations both public and private, the military services, auto clubs and the homes of friends. Licenses are granted by the police to those who prove their mastery and if we construe the police to act as representatives of society in this regard the question of where that mastery is obtained is of minor importance.²¹

With this plausible solution, Keats dismisses the problem. The fact that hundreds of thousands of Americans are killed or mutilated each year in highway accidents, with the greatest proportion of accidents occurring among the youngest drivers, does not seem to suggest to him that the kind of driver education one obtains at the home of a friend or through a youth organization is somehow inadequate. After all, the young driver has been able to pass the test given at his local police station. Realistically, when insurance companies (thoroughly familiar with accident statistics) credit youngsters who have taken and passed school driver education courses with lower insurance rates, this indicates that only one of the agencies mentioned—the school—is prepared to reach all children, and to teach not only driving skills but also essential safety attitudes.

If parents, or other agencies in the community, were prepared to do this job for all children and do it well, the schools would be well advised to quit the responsibility. It is *not* a central focus of education. But they do not, and so a very plausible case can be built for including driver education in the health education program in the public schools. A major social need is thus met. Is the need important enough? Is some other, more vital educational experience excluded because driver education is included? School administrators and parents in each community must answer these questions for themselves. The hard fact is that we are dealing with new social problems, which require new solutions.

Similarly, there is a serious incidence of youth narcotics addiction today, both in large urban centers and some well-to-do suburban communities. This unhappy subject was found in no school curriculum in the 1920's. It is not a traditional focus of education. But adolescents of today are imperiled by it, and need

to know about it. Is the practice of informing high school children about narcotics addiction (through special assemblies, assigned readings, group discussions, talks by police authorities, and other techniques) an unnecessary frippery? The parents of those teenagers who, by the thousands, have been "hooked," would not think so. Certainly it is closer to being a medical, social, and legal problem than an academic one. But, as it affects the work of the school, and as the school accepts responsibility for total growth of the children of the community, as the only agency through which *all* children may be reached, it becomes a curricular problem.

The same kinds of comments might be made about sex education. Is it of trivial moment that there is a rising incidence of venereal disease among young people, and of illegitimate pregnancy among teen-age girls? Certainly, these are moral problems that must be faced by parents and religious counselors. They are also closely related in many cases to the sheer ignorance or confusion of the child with respect to the most elementary physiological matters. Are these legitimate matters for instruction in the schools?

The broad field of family life education has been the subject of attack and ridicule on the part of a number of critics of education. Some have referred to courses in home economics as "classes in dating," or "how to fry an egg." Superintendent Frank Stover of the Bloomfield, New Jersey, public schools summed up his view of this field at a 1961 N.E.A. regional meeting in Philadelphia:

Whether the push-button age arrives or not, certain phases of basic living will remain. I don't believe we can assume that, in many instances, girls will receive at mothers' knee all they need to know about food preparation, nutrition, clothing, interior decoration, consumer information, home safety, child development, management, family relationships, or even good grooming. The school can't substitute for the family, but it ought to support and reinforce it if we agree that family life is the basic foundation of our society.²²

This hardly seems to justify the opprobrium that has been hurled at courses in home economics. Of course, there are always the questions, "How well have the courses been taught? How significant and effective have student experiences actually been?" The same questions may be directed to any phase of the curriculum, including the academic areas, and have been, with telling effect.

Returning to leisure education, one finds strong support for

viewing it as a crucial concern of education. In a recently published discussion of values in modern education, Philip Phenix takes the position that

... since recreation is a major preoccupation of the great majority of people, the nature of leisure-time activities profoundly affects the whole tone of cultural life. By and large that tone has been set by the pleasure principles. The average person associates recreation with freedom from responsibility, with having fun, with doing what one wants to do. . . .

Every person needs to be prepared not only for an occupation and for assuming the responsibilities of participation in civic life, but also for using his leisure time well. Hence, recreation is a proper educational concern, and the nurture of recreational capacities is a part of the teaching task.³³

Phenix asks again the question, "Who should be responsible for teaching about recreation?" Taking the position that no such inseparable and vital aspect of learning as recreation should be eliminated from the schools, he sees recreation education as being the common responsibility of many different agencies—homes, schools, community service groups, clubs and other voluntary organizations, the mass media, adult education agencies, libraries, and even business organizations.³⁴ Clearly, the school does not have the responsibility for actually providing the major share of recreational programs. It is however, he maintains, within the program of formal education that the meaning, perspective, and direction of leisure activity may best be taught.

Exactly how is this to be done? How are sound leisure values developed? Will leisure best be studied as a social phenomenon? Or, can its principles be understood best through the teaching of activities which have carry-over potential? If the latter, how does one determine which skills are worthy of inclusion? Is it necessary for the school to actually offer extensive programs of recreational activity? To what degree does the study of leisure permeate the teaching of other subject areas? What, actually, are meaningful current practices in this field?

The following three chapters will seek to answer these questions.

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32. Frank Stover, quoted in Mary Lee Hurt, "Focus on Family Life," *National Education Association Journal*, February, 1962, p. 16.
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4

The Task Defined

In a society of free men, the proper aim of education is to prepare the individual to make wise decisions. The educated man is one who can choose between good and bad, between truth and falsehood, between the beautiful and the ugly, between the worthwhile and the trivial. His education will enable him to make ethical decisions, political decisions, decisions within the home and on the job. It will enable him to choose a good book, a good painting, or a good piece of music. . . .¹

PAUL WOODRING

THE TASK OF leisure education is shared by a number of community agencies and is carried on within a variety of settings. The family, of course, plays a fundamental role in shaping leisure values, by making recreational experiences available and encouraging desirable leisure attitudes and patterns of participation. Obviously, the home is the setting for the child's first recreational activities. Within the community itself, first in the immediate neighborhood and then reaching out beyond this, there are a number of private and public community agencies that provide recreational opportunities and, in so doing, help to educate for leisure. The purpose of this chapter is to determine the precise nature of leisure education—to decide *what* it is and then to outline the ways in which the schools, as the most important of these agencies, have accepted this assignment and carried it out.

What does education for leisure mean?

A Statement of Goals

The chief purpose of leisure education, as in any form of education, is to bring about certain desirable changes in the students who are exposed to it. These changes may be stated in terms of (1) attitudes, (2) knowledge, (3) skills, and (4) behavior.

ATTITUDES. *It is essential that students develop an awareness of the importance of leisure in society and a recognition of the significant values that it may contribute to their lives. Coupled with this should be favorable attitudes leading to direct personal involvement in a variety of enriching, satisfying activities. Certainly, the exact nature of these activities is a matter of individual choice; it may be that in some cases they will be within a fairly narrow and intense range of interest. Essential too is the inculcation of a keen sense of taste and discrimination, and the ability to make sound judgments and rational choices with respect to all kinds of leisure participation.*

KNOWLEDGE. Sound attitudes must be supplemented by knowledge about the "how," "why," and "where" of recreational partici-

pation. Through direct experience and exposure, the student learns about recreational opportunities on many levels and comes to realize how he may become involved in them, and what kinds of outcomes may be derived. He gains information about recreation resources in the community, and learns to make full use of them. In all forms of activity, there is much specific information (beyond mere physical skill) that underlies successful participation.

SKILLS. The purpose of teaching skills is not to have a student master a number of specific activities with the thought that he will necessarily participate in them as the core of his recreational life in later youth and adulthood. It is, rather, to provide him with certain basic skills directly related to recreational opportunities presently available, so that he may participate in these activities with a degree of competence, success, and pleasure. It is difficult to predict whether he will participate in the same activities years later. Certain activities may not appeal to him as an adult, or may not be available in his community. It is also true that fads come and go in terms of recreational participation.

However, if there is effective instruction in a group of widely available activities and pastimes that have been consistently popular among people of all ages, it is likely that there will be a carry-over of participation. And, since we tend to enjoy most that which we *do well*, it is essential that the school experience involves a real learning experience, rather than a casual, "free-play" kind of approach. The school experience is not really play, any more than vocational instruction is a job. In each case, it is *preparation*.

BEHAVIOR. Each of the preceding goals (attitudes, knowledge, and skills) leads to this ultimate purpose. The outcome of leisure education must be *behavior* which is marked by good judgment in the selection of recreational pursuits; a diversity of leisure interests that meet physical, emotional, and social needs; and solid competence in participation. This means that the school has a responsibility to provide a laboratory experience, either by directly sponsoring, or by cooperating with other community agencies that do sponsor, recreational programs that implement its program of leisure education. The teaching effort of the school is meaningless if it does not lead to *real* participation. Only then can behavior be

confirmed, and habits of effective participation be solidly implanted.

A Philosophical Framework

Implicit in the foregoing is the need for a philosophical framework which provides basic principles on which programs of leisure education may be built. This may be drawn from a number of sources. In terms of present-day applications, the educator who is concerned about the values that underly leisure education is likely to find extremely helpful the recommendations of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth.² Here a number of essential needs of youth in the present day were outlined, with specific relevance to leisure and recreation. They stress the need to do the following:

1. Encourage a leisurely and relaxed attitude toward free time, simplicity and naturalness; the unhurried, simple and spontaneous should be deliberately cultivated in a society as organized and fast-paced as ours.

2. Achieve a healthy balance between one's leisure life and one's work life.

3. Cultivate a sense of self-identity and autonomy, through a balance of healthy and satisfying individual and group experiences.

4. Encourage an attitude of detachment, thoughtfulness, and exploration, and a balance between action and reflection, activity and passivity, gregariousness and solitude.

5. Help youth become aware of the variety and complexity of the world; in so doing, give them the opportunity to break out of social isolation in their own neighborhoods.

6. Provide the opportunity to participate in community affairs and share experiences which express social concern and are focused on meaningful goals of living.

These offer direction to a program of effective leisure education. But, beyond them, is there not a system of values supporting the entire school curriculum, that may provide a solid basis for decisions relating to leisure education? In the book, *Education and the Common Good: A Moral Philosophy of the Curriculum*,

Phenix proposes such a system, and makes a number of specific applications to leisure education. First, he suggests:

It is not claimed that anyone knows what the ultimate good is, nor that it is always actually possible to secure agreement about moral questions. But it does seem clear that any serious concern to discover and do what is right rests on the premise that there are objective standards of worth upon which universal agreement is in principle possible. . . .³

Phenix points out that it is necessary to draw a distinction between values which are based on personal interest and desire, and those which are based on intrinsic worth. He makes clear that it would be a mistake to assume that desire is in itself wrong; to the contrary, many of the ordinary objects of human interest and desire are valuable and worthy. The point is that desire in itself is not necessarily a measure of goodness. Certain things which are not truly worthy in life may be widely desired; the converse may also be true. Phenix makes clear that in our society today, the "democracy of desire" (in which the good society is regarded as one of material affluence, and in which a wide range of desires are powerfully stimulated and abundantly satisfied) is most widely respected. But he feels that in the truly moral curriculum, the set of desires that reflect only what people *want*, cannot be the basis of choice. Instead, he supports the "democracy of worth":

The other type of democracy centers around devotion or loyalty to the good, the right, the true, the excellent. It is referred to as the democracy of worth. Devotion is different from desire. It is primarily other-regarding than self-interested. It invites sacrifice and loyalty instead of conferring gratification. It is concerned with giving instead of getting.⁴

How does one determine what is worthy, in terms of leisure education? Clearly, it is not easy. The dominant ethical and moral beliefs of the community and nation must be identified, stripped of ambiguity or confusion, and applied with deep thought and care. The key question always to be applied, of course, is "What does this mean in terms of human outcomes? That is, is the dignity and worth of each human being uplifted and enriched by the recreational experience, or is it in any way demeaning and destructive?" On this ultimate basis, all decisions must be made.

Approaches to Leisure Education

Assuming that one has established certain goals for leisure education and a philosophical framework which serves as a basis for making choices and developing emphases, what actual approaches are used? Here we have a school. What is to happen in it, to serve the purposes that have been described? In terms of specifics, nine points were suggested in an editorial by Joy Elmer Morgan in the *National Education Association Journal* in 1928, that still have real meaning. Morgan suggested that the schools could help to "enrich leisure" by

1. Introducing young people to a wide range of life interests.
2. Teaching the use of books and libraries and developing wholesome reading appetites closely related to each of the great objectives of education and life.
3. Developing appreciation of fine music and skill in singing, playing, and dancing.
4. Having children participate in games and sports which may be easily continued in after years.
5. Providing experiences in pleasant social life through school activities and clubs.
6. Cultivating in children a love of the out-of-doors—appreciation of flowers, animals, landscape, sky, and stars.
7. Giving children an opportunity to develop hobbies in various creative fields—gardening, mechanics, applied arts, fine arts, architecture, city planning.
8. Making the school and its playfields the center and servant of a wholesome and satisfying neighborhood life.
9. Calling attention to various agencies and the values which they serve—theaters, concerts, libraries, radio, periodicals and newspapers, museums, parks, playgrounds, travel.⁶

With the exception of the point about developing hobbies in architecture and city planning (both of which are customarily work-related and not recreational experiences except in the possible context of exploring one's community or building models), this is an excellent listing of specific areas in which the school may promote leisure interests and capabilities.

Sixteen years later, in the 1944 Report of the Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*,⁶ an interesting approach to leisure education was presented. In Farmville, a hypothetical rural school district, a recreational supervisor, Mr. Warfield, has been hired. It is his job to supervise within a community school framework, a multitude of activities and recreational events serving all of the people of the district, of all ages. Specifically, the question is asked, "What are the functions of our school in relation to recreational and leisure-time interests?" These are described:

The first function of any school is to teach, or if you prefer, to help people to learn. And we said that people should be helped to learn two things—to cultivate leisure-time interests and to develop skill in following these interests. In those days, before we reorganized our elementary schools, most of our youngsters came to us with only a narrow range of recreational interests, because they never had a chance to develop any others. It was our job to expose these boys and girls . . . to many possible interests and to help them discover their capacities for enjoyment. . . .

In Farmville . . . the school has a second function. No matter how well you teach, you can't expect people to use their leisure time constructively unless they have facilities. For sports, you need play fields and a gymnasium. For music and drama, you need instruments, rooms, and a stage. For handicrafts, you need shops and equipment. In those days, Farmville had none of these facilities. So we said that this school, which we were planning, ought to be equipped to serve as the recreational center for the community.⁷

Later in the document, the school principal, Evans, describes the recreational program for students, organized on a non-instructional, extracurricular basis:

Every student is encouraged to develop three types of avocational interest; some sport or activity involving exercise and coordination of the large muscles; some ability which can be employed and enjoyed in larger groups, such as choral singing, orchestral playing, dramatics and folk dancing; and some hobby which can be pursued alone or in the family. Of course, this is a matter of guidance and skillful teaching, rather than assignment. We don't believe that recreational interests can be forced. . . .⁸

The chief criticism that one might make of this approach is that it is too highly structured and, at the same time, too narrow

in scope. Certainly it is not reasonable to expect that each student be involved in *three* categories of recreational participation, when he might have a very deep interest in just *two* or a minor interest in *five*. Nor does this proposal provide for many forms of leisure pursuits which do not fit under the headings described. Let us sharpen the approach somewhat by describing several major areas, or channels, through which leisure education may be implemented in the school's program.

FIVE CHANNELS FOR LEISURE EDUCATION

1. **THE TOTAL CURRICULUM.** If the total curriculum, on whatever level, represents a disciplined, sequential, scholarly approach to liberal education, covering the broad spectrum of social sciences, mathematics, physical sciences, language arts, music, art, physical education, home and family living, and health education, the assumption is that it will produce educated individuals. These in turn should be capable of using their leisure time wisely and, because of the breadth and quality of their education, should have a wide variety of leisure interests. Such a curriculum must, of course, have a major degree of concern with the cultural heritage of man's past. But, especially from the leisure point of view, it should provide a thoroughly contemporary exploration of the cultural scene: the social sciences, the arts, and literature, in particular. It should be a "doing" curriculum, rather than merely "appreciative." In particular, it should focus on developing judgment, taste, and a pervasive system of moral values that are applied to all forms of leisure experience.

2. **BRIDGES TO LEISURE.** Wherever it is possible to do so, without weakening the original intent of the curricular area, use should be made of topics, examples, subject units, or skills that provide bridges to leisure—in the sense of developing favorable attitudes, knowledge, skills, and behavior. This is most obvious in terms of those educational subjects which are common to recreational participation: music, physical education, English (as it relates to recreational reading and creative writing), outdoor education, and fine and industrial arts. Less obvious, but equal in potential for recreational implications, are a number of other academic areas. In these, when the motivation and interest of students are heightened through linkages to leisure activity, the

educational experience itself will be improved. Obviously, if certain curricular experiences *cannot* be legitimately treated in this manner and have no real carry-over values for leisure, this must be recognized. But, if the opportunity exists (as in the case of an art class in which there is a choice between two media otherwise comparable), the teacher would be wise to select the activity with the greater potential for leisure education.

3. CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES. This includes two basic categories. The first is the type of activity which is closely related to a subject area, such as the student council as it relates to the study of government, or the student newspaper as it relates to the study of *English or communication arts*. The second is the kind of social activity, club, or event (class picnic, outing, or prom) which is not intended to be linked to the curriculum as such, but which serves the ends of the school in building desirable patterns of social behavior and keeping school morale high. Such activities will be described in greater length in the following chapter.

4. DIRECT FOCUS ON LEISURE. Recognizing that leisure and recreation represent an important aspect of modern life, they should be studied in their own right. While it is unlikely that in most schools there will actually be a course titled "Leisure," it may logically be studied in several other ways:

(a) As part of a *social studies* course, in examining the neighborhood or community, it is entirely appropriate to consider problems of leisure and recreation. In courses in *home and family living*, the function of leisure and recreation in terms of building desirable family relationships may certainly be explored. In *health education* and *physical education*, the place of recreation in healthful living may readily be examined.

(b) In a few secondary schools,⁹ there have been classes in recreation leadership which have dealt with basic understandings of leisure and direct recreational leadership skills. Presented as *electives for juniors or seniors*, these courses have been given for academic credit, and have served as *preparation for jobs* in programs of summer recreation conducted by school systems. While such courses might be viewed as excessively prevocational, they are certainly no more so than courses in typing or industrial arts.

5. SPONSORSHIP OF RECREATION PROGRAM. The final area of relationship involves the school's being fully or partially responsible for a community recreation program. Clearly, this has implications for leisure education, in that many of the activities presented may be specifically designed to coordinate with, or to supplement more formal curricular experiences. It will not be discussed at length at this point, since it involves another major focus of this book, to be treated in detail later.

Each of these approaches is rich in its potential for leisure education. Certain questions, however, must be asked. With respect to the second channel described, it must be made quite clear that, in teaching a subject that has carry-over values it is *not* taught as recreation. No school class *can* be fully recreational, in spite of the strong linkage between recreation and education. A class is compulsory, does not involve a real degree of choice, and has a goal outside of itself (receiving a grade or credit for graduation). The effort must be on such creative, stimulating instructional methods, and such resourceful use of trips, tours, special projects, assignments, films, and student presentations, that the student sees the experience not just as a dry, classroom activity, that will end when the course ends, but as something that will continue throughout his life as a field of knowledge and activity.

Each subject must be taught for its own sake, but with full awareness of its extrinsic values.

A related point is that a number of essentially recreational experiences may be extremely useful in teaching certain academic subjects. One example is in the area of language instruction. A language specialist, Virginia Spaar,¹⁰ has developed an ingenious and effective approach making use of songs and music in teaching secondary school French. Frequently, school curriculum guides recommend such procedures; too often they are not creatively implemented. Spaar's approach was to use specifically selected songs to study the geography of France, as well as French customs and national holidays, history, and literature.

She found that music provided a ready-made link between language and culture, both in rhythmic content and melodic form. Songs were chosen for their educational content and their appeal for children. Some of the conclusions were that children are helped to lose fear or self-consciousness about making new and strange

sounds in a foreign language, and that a spirit of camaraderie and group participation is developed through class singing. Spaar felt also that songs lend themselves readily to memorization, achieve long retention of learning, and help students understand grammatical constructions more easily.

Similarly, folk dancing and folk games may also be used, especially in the elementary grades, to enhance social studies units dealing with periods of American history, or with the people of other lands. It is true that the specific factual knowledge derived from a song or dance is quite limited, and that certain kinds of learnings may be viewed as more important than others. August Heckscher writes: "However agreeable, knowledge of social customs and of children's games in foreign countries is no substitute for the facts of size, population, land area, the flow of rivers, and the contours of mountains."¹¹

Certainly, this is so. And yet, while the facts of history, geography, and economics are important, it is important also that we learn how and why people behave *as people*. To the extent that such informal activities, folk dancing, singing, and games may provide this kind of clue or enriched learning, they contribute significantly to the social studies.

Similarly, outdoor education may provide many important experiences that supplement academic learnings, although this is a claim that has been carelessly made. For example, in the publication, *Outdoor Education for American Youth*, prepared in 1957 by a special committee of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, the following passage appears:

Alert social science teachers have long used the methods of outdoor education. Trips to a ghost town or an abandoned farm can give high school students of history or modern problems a keen insight into the changing patterns of America's development. An hour or two spent at an excavation site can demonstrate more clearly than thousands of words the slow, tedious methods by which much of history is literally dug out.¹²

Or, again, in a discussion of youth hosteling, the question is asked: "How about the academics? Could history be more real than to a group standing on the very spot from which Lincoln spoke his timeless words; or to a cyclist looking out over the rolling hills of Valley Forge?"¹³

A dispassionate observer is likely to view with a jaundiced eye the specific value of a trip to an abandoned farm, a ghost town, or Valley Forge—if the chief purpose is to enrich the course experience in terms of *content*. If the observer happens to be a high school teacher who is attempting to help his students pass a State Regents examination or College Boards with high scores, he may be even more jaundiced.

At the same time, it must be recognized that there are very real and important educational values to come out of outdoor education, particularly in terms of social outcomes, but also in terms of specific subject areas, such as science and conservation. These will be outlined in greater detail in the following chapter.

Extent of Leisure Education Today

To what extent do educators today accept leisure education as a serious responsibility of the schools, and what views do they express on it? At this point, the author draws upon information gathered in his 1962 surveys of recreation educators and school administrators.

In the opinion of recreation educators (those in charge of college or university courses for the training of professionals in the field of recreation), only a small proportion of school administrators have fully accepted this function (Appendix A, items 16, 17, 18). When asked, "*In your judgment, do school administrators in your area view the function of providing students with leisure time skills and attitudes as an important task of education?*" recreation educators replied:

		(PER CENT)
Yes	13	27.1
No	17	35.4
Qualified	18	37.5

The word "qualified," in this and succeeding tallies, means an indecisive response, such as "only to a degree," "not usually," or "it is a minor concern." For example, several recreation educators stated specifically that, in their areas, school administrators pay "lip service" to the objective of leisure education, but do not really

attempt to carry it out. In response to the question, "How might they do a better job in this respect?" frequently heard responses ran in this vein:

Open their minds, review own objectives, really accept their responsibility with respect to leisure education; better understand the need for recreation and leisure; learn importance of recreation in fully-integrated person.

Other suggestions had to do with implementation:

Educate teachers to accept this goal of education; place more emphasis on leisure skills, with in-service and pre-service courses that deal with essential values and techniques of leisure education.

More emphasis should be placed on extracurricular activities; more budget and time allotted to education for leisure; program should be broader.

Views of School Administrators

In contrast, when school administrators (tallied in two groups: those who acted as sponsors of community recreation programs, and those who did not) were asked, "*Do you believe that one of the most important goals of education is or should be to provide students with leisure skills, habits, and attitudes?*" the response was strongly favorable:

	NONSPONSORS		SPONSORS		COMBINED	
		(PER CENT)		(PER CENT)		(PER CENT)
Yes	130	89.7	58	98.3	188	93.5
No	12	8.3	1	1.7	13	6.5
Qualified	3	2				

This clearly indicates a strong level of support of the leisure education function of education among school administrators queried, particularly those who are sponsors of community recreation programs (Appendix DE, items 92, 96, 97). The following examples illustrate the tone of many of the comments of school principals and superintendents who replied (a number were careful to point out the need to balance this function against the academic concerns of the school):

One of the goals of education is to provide leisure-time skills, etc., but school cannot be the sole agency in performing this function. Major responsibility of school is of course academic, but increasingly, in urban communities it must assume greater responsibility for many aspects of the child's total program in order to make it possible for the child to participate fully in the academic program. [*Chicago, Illinois*]

Recreation is a matter of social concern and pupils should be informed and have understandings. [*Sheboygan, Wisconsin*]

The importance of relaxation, change of pace and wise use of leisure time is more important now than ever before. [*Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*]

Our first concern is academic, but there has always been a balanced program of educational and recreational activities in our schools. Leisure activities are taught in clubs such as ski club, sports such as tennis, golf, swimming, and in classes such as physical education, music, art, crafts, shop, literature, drama. [*Medford, Oregon*]

It is a question of too much or too little; a balanced program of academic emphasis and social and recreational development is sound educationally and generally will merit community support. [*Needles, California*]

Academic work is number one objective. Recreational activities should contribute to scholastic achievement. [*Columbus, Ohio*]

[We develop] skills . . . which have carry-over value to adult life; academic classes point out the importance of proper use of leisure. [*Kenosha, Wisconsin*]

No one can question the fact that our major purpose is the academic growth of pupils. We have, though, a sincere responsibility to develop in children those positive skills, habits and attitudes which can be used in ever-increasing leisure hours. [*West Long Branch, New Jersey*]

Parents seem to be more interested in rearing well-rounded children. The feeling that leisure time should be utilized more wisely is becoming more predominant. [*Greenville, Mississippi*]

. . . the home has a definite responsibility to provide social and recreational opportunities in addition to the public agency. I feel also that the school must focus on the academic growth of students, but that leisure time activities and skills are a part of the well-rounded program of activities. [*Renville, Minnesota*]

Our parents seem to want both academic excellence and development of satisfying skills for leisure. [*Newburgh, New York*]

I believe an intelligent effort for the development of a sound attitude toward leisure is vital. [*Tucson, Arizona*]

Many respondents stressed that, through their co-curriculum and physical education programs, they felt they were accomplishing the needed task. A number of others, including several who supported the leisure education function in principle, indicated that pressures were being brought to bear in favor of an academic emphasis, and against the recreational involvement or leisure education function of the schools:

Activities other than the purely academic are questioned by some parents. [*Oak Park, Michigan*]

Recent trends in emphasis have made the schools place more emphasis on the academic and less on the co-curriculum. [*Bend, Oregon*]

With the present heavy curriculum and length of school day, any major effort in leisure education must come in the evening or on Saturday. [*Niagara Falls, New York*]

. . . that schools do less of the extra-curricular or semi-recreational. [*Billings, Montana*]

Primary responsibility for social and recreational aspects of students' development should rest with another municipal agency. School dollar has already stretched out too far to cover peripheral responsibilities—to the detriment of the core of the program. [*Grosse Pointe, Michigan*]

In order to determine how leisure education was carried out, the following question was asked, "In your school, are certain 'academic' subjects approached with their leisure education outcomes a major concern of the teacher?" In retrospect, the question should have been more sharply phrased, because some administrators seemed to take "academic" to mean only such courses as mathematics, languages, or history; others understood the intended meaning, which was "courses taken for academic credit." Recognizing that this confusion existed among those responding, the replies to the question were

	NONSPONSORS		SPONSORS		COMBINED	
	(PER CENT)		(PER CENT)		(PER CENT)	
Yes	48	41.7	24	48	72	43.6
No	65	56.5	26	52	91	55.1
Qualified	2	1.8			2	1.2

This indicates clearly that, while school administrators are willing to view leisure education as a function of the school, and

feel that this is satisfactorily accomplished through co-curricular activities (Appendix DE, item 96), a majority did not believe that this should be an important aspect of *academic* courses. Understandably, the "nonsponsor" school administrators were more emphatic on this issue than the sponsors, who were almost evenly divided.

In spite of this position, a number of examples were cited showing how academic experiences were directly linked to, or had important implications for, leisure education:

One does not preclude the other—it is not an either-or decision. Any academic area lends itself to leisure time uses or can become the focus of social intercourse. [*Racine, Wisconsin*]

Leisure time activities vary so widely between individuals that it is very difficult to say exactly what knowledge or skills will be used by an individual as a means of recreation. Our co-curricular activities and our academic program are very closely allied since a great number of the activities . . . are started from classroom interests. Music, art, physical education, home economics, shop courses—these courses lend themselves easily to the development of skills and knowledge valuable for leisure time activities. [*Excelsior Springs, Missouri*]

We articulate with the curriculum in such subject fields as physical education, art, music, social studies, etc. [Academic subjects approached in terms of leisure education include] reading, literature, writing, science and foreign languages. [*Pasadena, California*]

Certainly most club and athletic activities are extensions of the academic curriculum. Latin club, year book management, newspaper, G.A. store work, intramurals, science societies—all play a part in integrating "school work" with leisure time hobbies and interests. [*Mamaroneck, New York*]

Some respondents saw the leisure education applications only in terms of the physical education programs. The following were examples of these:

Physical education should limit program to recreational fundamentals and skills. Intramurals, clubs, interest groups, should foster activities of a recreational nature. [*Birmingham, Michigan*]

Through our physical education classes we teach leisure time activities such as bowling, golf, etc. [*Bryan, Texas*]

Interestingly, there was a strong positive response to the question, "Do you feel that certain recreation experiences may con-

tribute to the academic growth of students?" Over 96.4 per cent of the school administrators responding to this question replied "yes". They cited numerous illustrative examples of outcomes in specific subject areas:

Hobbies related to academic subjects are encouraged. Examples: physics—electronics; speech—debate; geology—lapidary, etc. [*Port Townsend, Washington*]

Field trips, certain organized sports and activities, trips to state fair, to state capitol, to historic points of interest [all contribute]. [*Georgetown, South Carolina*]

Outdoor recreation experience is related to science classes. [*Kansas City, Kansas*]

We do have specific recreation activities that contribute directly to academic growth, such as games and songs in foreign languages, conversational Spanish for small children, arts and crafts. [*White Bear Lake, Minnesota*]

All of them [contribute]. Science and music recreational classes carry over onto regional school work. [*Pinellas County, Florida*]

Music, drama, art, literature, science—and the list could go on to cover language, history, etc.—all may be pursued recreationally as well as academically. Every musical performance or dramatic production gives evidence of this. The weekly high school newspaper and the class yearbook are other examples. Field trips to zoos, United Nations, museums, nature centers, historical spots—all combine as recreational and academic [experiences]. [*Mamaroneck, New York*]

A great many references were made to the importance of recreational activities in contributing to the total well-being of students and, in a number of cases, in being extremely influential in keeping them in school and operating at their most effective level:

Any recreational experience which contributes to the mental and physical health of students should help their academic growth. [*Decatur, Illinois*]

If recreation means what it should, any activity that recreates should refresh and [cause] increased vigor in all things accomplished. This would include academic growth. [*Kansas City, Kansas*]

. . . all recreational activities, if not overdone, produce a child that

is more emotionally and physically healthy and his mind functions better because of it. [Keene, New Hampshire]

All contribute to the tone of one's mental and physical fitness as well as effecting satisfactions. Persons who are fit tend to perform up to ability and as a result such recreational experiences contribute to the academic achievement of the person. [Renville, Minnesota]

Academic work must be [acceptable] or the student cannot represent his school [on sports teams]. This is a motivating influence. [Marshalltown, Iowa]

. . . we think we have evidence that those who participate in "extra-curricular" activities of this nature do better academic work than their counterparts who do not. [Columbia, South Carolina]

Our experience has been that students who are in activities have a better attitude toward school. [Medford, Oregon]

Although many other constructive outcomes of recreational participation were cited, these comments serve to illustrate the views of the school administrators who responded to the survey.

To sum up, then, it has been demonstrated that, while a preponderance of school supervisors and principals accept the objective of leisure education as an important goal of education today, the majority of them do not see this as being a logical outcome of academic course work. On the other hand, they feel that co-curricular activities contribute markedly to the over-all functioning of students and, in many specific ways, to academic course work.

The following chapters analyze the nature of leisure education practices today on three levels of education: elementary and secondary schools and colleges.

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5

Leisure Education in Elementary Schools

There was a child went forth every day,
And the first object he look'd upon,
 that object he became,
And that object became part of him for
 the day or a certain part of the day,
Or for many years or stretching cycles
 of years . . .¹

WALT WHITMAN

FIRST, IT MUST be made clear that within textbooks on elementary education or the elementary school curriculum, one is *not* likely to find a detailed discussion of leisure education as a specific objective. True, there may be extended references to social growth and adjustment, but this is viewed as part of the total growth of the child, rather than in relation to leisure education. Even in texts dealing with the curriculum for younger children, in kindergarten and primary grades, play activities are discussed not as they relate to leisure education, but rather in terms of their important contribution to the total learning experience.

One must therefore conclude that leisure education as such is not formally recognized and implemented as a separate goal of elementary education. At the same time, it will readily be found that many activities and experiences in the elementary grades contribute to building favorable attitudes toward leisure and recreation, and implanting needed skills and knowledge. Also, it is quite clear that throughout the curriculum, play activities are used as a means of motivating children and promoting learning, even in clearly academic subject areas.

In the following pages, these practices are presented and analyzed, within a number of subject fields: (1) arithmetic, (2) science, (3) social studies, (4) language arts, (5) physical education, (6) music, and (7) outdoor education and camping. Following this, co-curricular and after-school recreation programs are described, as they contribute to goals of leisure education.

Arithmetic and Leisure Education

One tends to think of arithmetic as having a high level of academic purpose and being as far removed from leisure education as any subject in the curriculum. Yet it is interesting to note that several widely used elementary school textbooks in arithmetic make frequent references to leisure purposes. These tend to fit in three categories:

1. The study of arithmetic in the earlier grades is given meaning by relating it to common experiences of children in their family life or play activities.
2. Certain kinds of play activities are used as aids in the learning of computational skills.

3. When skills have been learned, they are directly useful in a variety of recreational experiences, some of which may actually be introduced in the classroom.

To illustrate, Brueckner, Grossnickle, and Reckzeh comment: "Growth in the ability to apply mathematical procedures effectively . . . is greatly facilitated by abundant experiences in using numbers in a variety of purposeful activities."²

Writing about arithmetic in the kindergarten, Eads closely relates instruction to the play activities of children. Starting with Johnny who is building a tower of blocks, she asks, "How many floors high is your tower? How did you build this bridge over the second floor?" She may go to the group in the "house-play" areas, as one child prepares dinner for his "family." She asks, "How many are there in your family? What dishes will you use for the table? How many of each?"³

In an interesting article on the use of rhythm in the teaching of arithmetic,⁴ Neureiter describes a detailed approach to beating out rhythm in different cadences to teach simple addition, counting by numbers, subtraction, and multiplication. Other authors have made use of dramatic techniques in the teaching of arithmetic. Enrichment exercises frequently consist of social applications of computational skills normally studied in a given grade. Examples at the third- or fourth-grade levels "include such exercises as finding . . . the price of a quart of milk . . . determining how club dues are used, and finding the cost of keeping a dog."⁵

Games are frequently used to practice arithmetical skills already learned, or to implant new concepts. In Bruner's *The Process of Education*, Inhelder is quoted:

The teaching of probabilistic reasoning, so very common and important a feature of modern science, is hardly developed in our educational system before college. . . . Our research indicates that the understanding of random phenomena requires . . . the use of certain concrete logical operations well within the grasp of the young child—provided these operations are free of awkward mathematical expression. . . . Games in which lots are drawn, games of roulette, and games involving a Gaussian distribution of outcomes are all ideal for giving the child a basic grasp of the logical operation needed for thinking about probability. . . .⁶

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For older children, there are possibilities for the recreational use of arithmetic: (1) using such activities as paper-folding or

map-making to extend mathematical understanding and ability in geometry; and (2) using mathematical puzzles and riddles which have the initial purpose of stimulating and enriching learning, but which may ultimately lead to encouraging leisure-time participation in mathematical hobbies.

One recently published text, *Extending Mathematics Understanding*,⁷ describes many such projects. In the final chapter, dealing with "mathematical recreation," the authors write that

. . . for centuries, numbers have amazed, tricked, delighted, and baffled man. As old riddles are solved, new ones arise to tantalize and to challenge. Children . . . should have the opportunity to play, as well as to work, with numbers and their representations. Many recreational materials may sharpen not only interest in mathematics but insight into basic mathematical concepts, techniques of problem solving, and construction and use of models. . . . In this chapter, we shall take a brief view of mathematical recreations, sampling a few materials from various areas. It will be noted that the line between "work" and "play" materials is often faint or even indistinguishable. . . .⁸

The authors make clear that, as in any instructional process, the teacher must, in selecting recreational materials, give thoughtful consideration to the needs and abilities of his students. Some he may wish to present to the entire class, and others to individuals or groups who are ready for them. Among the types of recreational games presented are magic figures, prime numbers, missing numerals, number games, number puzzles, and problems in arrangement and construction.

Clearly, the student who has been taught in this manner is likely to have not only a deeper interest in the subject, but also a personal view of mathematics as something fascinating and a potentially permanent leisure interest. In this sense, the subject may have a logical relationship to leisure education.

Science and Leisure Education

Another subject that, on the face of it, would appear to have little application to leisure or recreation is science; elementary school science texts contain few references to the teaching of science for the specific purpose of encouraging leisure-time interests. However, a number of the most recently published books

in this field emphasize strongly the relating of science instruction to the varied experiences and interests of children. Thus, while the purpose may be to develop hobbies for motivational or illustrative purposes, inevitably a reciprocal purpose is achieved—that of developing out-of-school recreational pursuits, based on scientific interests.

Tannenbaum and Stillman point out, in *Science Education for Elementary School Teachers*,⁹ that children's interests vary as widely as children themselves. However, they do follow a pattern, with respect to scientific subject matter. First-graders are likely to be interested in trains, planes, or animals. By fourth or fifth grade, there is often an interest in the stars and the universe. By the sixth grade, there is almost certain to be an interest in the human body and how it functions. The authors point out that, eventually

... children begin to develop the lasting interests which will become the bases of their vocations and avocations. Assuming that the school provides them with opportunities to explore their interests, they will be more likely to choose among their varied experiences and from their broad backgrounds of information those things which they wish to pursue as long range activities.

With the wide scope of children's interests, the natural question follows: How can these interests be used in building the science curriculum? One of the essential criteria for including material can be stated as follows: the needs and interests of children are a necessary basis for curriculum construction. . . .¹⁰

Tannenbaum and Stillman suggest many kinds of field trips, special projects and demonstrations, exhibits, science fairs, and similar involvements which serve both to enrich the science curriculum and stimulate leisure-time participation for children. Obviously, a subject as fascinating as science in the Space Age is bound to be attractive to many youngsters. Here too, it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a distinction between "work" and "play." Examples of special recreation programs based on science interest are given later in this chapter.

Social Studies and Leisure Education

Unlike the areas of elementary science and mathematics, the social studies curriculum in elementary schools is frequently re-

lated to specific objectives having to do with leisure education. Thus, Merritt describes the following objectives of a social studies curriculum for elementary grades, under the heading of "self-realization": (1) *Recreation*—the educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes; (2) *Intellectual Interest*—the educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure; and (3) *Esthetic Interests*—the educated person appreciates beauty.¹¹

Under this heading, and also under the heading of "human relationships" (working and playing with others, social behavior, varied social life, and so on), one finds the basis for a number of social studies units in the elementary grades. These may deal with "providing for and participating in recreation," or "studying how people live." Inevitably, problems of leisure and patterns of recreational participation are examined with important outcomes for leisure education.

In addition, just as in science, a wide variety of special experiences are made part of the social studies curriculum. These may include field trips, demonstrations, and dramatizations, as well as the use of television, recordings, and films.

Thus, in his book, *Social Studies in Elementary Education*,¹² Jarolimek lists many possible places to be visited in the community, including historical sites, railway stations, post offices, art galleries, bakeries, canneries, docks, police stations, the zoo and aquarium, parks, hobby shows, courthouses, observatories, legislative bodies in sessions, broadcasting or telecasting stations, and many others. While they have specific purposes in terms of adding to the child's awareness of community life, such trips also broaden his recreational horizons and interests.

Similarly, some of the special projects suggested by Jarolimek include:

1. Collecting and exhibiting old photographs which show the history of the community.

2. Collecting and trying pioneer recipes, learning folk dances, investigating local cultural contributions of various nationality groups.

3. Collecting songs of various periods of history and presenting a recital of them.

4. Painting a mural of some aspect of the history of the local community or state.

5. Making models or sketches of oxcarts, prairie schooners, canoes, spinning wheels, or other pioneer equipment.

6. Writing and presenting a pageant telling the story of some aspect of history.

In the program of instruction for international understanding in the middle and upper elementary grades, it is helpful to "involve children in activities which involve action by them rather than depending entirely on a verbal approach."¹³ Such projects might take the form of participating in the Junior Red Cross, exchanging letters with children abroad, collecting stamps and coins from various countries, learning rudiments of a foreign language, collecting money for UNICEF, or learning and doing games and dances of other countries. Again, these activities are hardly distinguishable from clearly recreational pursuits. Thus, they definitely contribute to leisure skills and interests.

Language Arts and Leisure Education

The language arts, particularly the study of reading, have a direct relationship to leisure education. For millions of children and adults, reading for pleasure is an important form of recreation. The basis for determining the success of a school reading program must be not only how well children have learned the mechanics of reading, but also how well they have gained the *love* of reading.

In *Teaching Reading, A Guide to Basic Principles and Modern Practices*,¹⁴ Hildreth points out that too frequently when a sharp distinction is made between "study" reading and "recreational" reading, when school reading is so prescribed that little time remains for the free exploration of books and other materials, and when literary classics are overemphasized in reading programs, the result is likely to be that children turn to other activities they enjoy more. They stop reading *for fun*.

It is necessary, Hildreth comments, to encourage children to find books that "they may identify more closely with themselves in their own time and setting; they demand books with easy readability, devoid of poly-syllables, complex sentences and unusual metaphors. . . ." ¹⁵ Leisure reading for children must reflect the times in which they live and must deal with such subjects as

exploration, high adventure, sports, science fiction, interesting people, great deeds, humor, and everyday life. She writes:

When a child's interest centers on airplanes, submarines, wild animals and camping out, this is the psychological moment to supply literature on the subject. Get a discussion going on hobbies, then have the books on hand ready to distribute. The thirteen-year-old who is crazy about astronomy should be supplied with all the material he can handle.

These hobby pursuits are not something quite apart from all else that goes on in the school, but are more often an integral part of a child's work on a unit, for example, writing part of a play, practicing music, painting a mural, or sewing a costume. Reading up on hobbies may establish life-long interests or vocational pursuits.¹⁶

Thus, wisely directed reading may serve not only as a vital and continuing leisure interest in itself, but may also serve to enrich other recreational outlets. Clearly, this is an important aspect of leisure education in the elementary school. Similarly, writing (at first approached as an end in itself or as an essential tool in the educational scheme) also lends itself to a variety of leisure interests. These may include writing letters to friends; keeping a diary; putting together a neighborhood, club, or class newspaper; and writing poetry or short stories. Again, this is the kind of youthful recreational pastime which not infrequently becomes a lifetime interest or even the basis for a career.

Physical Education and Leisure Education

Without question, since sports, games, dancing, and aquatic activities comprise such a major portion of recreational participation for children and adults, the physical education program in elementary schools is of key importance in education for leisure. There are several specific ways in which it contributes to the recreational competence of children: (1) developing and improving organic fitness; (2) teaching basic neuromuscular skills which underly all physical recreation activities; (3) teaching specific skills in games or sports which have the potential for recreational carry-over, either in the present or the future; and (4) developing favorable attitudes toward play and the needed

qualities of good sportsmanship, group cooperation, responsibility, and social awareness, which promote satisfying participation.

A number of these points are outlined in the physical education manual published by the California State Department of Education. It stresses, among others, these goals:

1. Development of sufficient skill in motor activities to provide pleasure and satisfaction.
2. Development of the individual's interest in maintaining his own optimum physical, mental, social, and emotional well-being.
3. Development of the individual's desire to appreciate and master worthwhile physical recreational skills.
4. Development of the social integration of each individual within the group through activities that give opportunity for satisfying experience.¹⁷

These objectives are achieved through a diversified program of physical activities which includes, for younger children, many forms of free play and movement exploration, self-testing stunts and tumbling, rhythmic fundamentals, singing games and simple folk dances, tag games and relays, and lead-up ball games which introduce essential ball-handling skills. On the middle and upper grade levels, skills are improved and games and sports are taught which require a higher level of team organization, knowledge of rules, and social adjustment; in addition, more advanced forms of coeducational, recreational dance are taught.

Throughout, the California manual makes clear, this program is most meaningful if it is closely integrated with nonclass activities: supervised playgrounds (used before or after school, or during the lunch hour or recess), playdays, intermural or intramural sports programs, fun nights, hobby and club periods, school parties, and dances. Children are directly encouraged to make recreational use of the skills they have learned during physical education class periods.¹⁸

The emphasis, therefore, in physical education classes must be on *present* carry-over values, rather than upon the remote objective of implanting specific skills for future adult participation. It is a reasonable expectation that satisfying play experiences during one's formative years will do much to insure continued participation in active, wholesome physical recreation in later years.

Within this context, it is necessary to recognize the present-day concern about physical fitness, discussed in an earlier chapter.

In a number of school systems, there has been a recent tendency to concentrate on formal programs of exercises, calisthenics, or other forms of conditioning, to the partial exclusion of activities which have carryover values for leisure. While such drill-like activities can help children improve their performance on specific fitness tests (particularly those involving the strength of muscle groups, cardiorespiratory efficiency, and flexibility), their effects are not long-lived, and they are not likely to be continued recreationally by children. Therefore, it is necessary to make sure that they are applied within reasonable limits, and do not overbalance other elements of the elementary school physical education program.

Similarly, although many schools have countenanced interscholastic athletic competition in the upper elementary grades or in junior high school, this is considered undesirable for immature boys and girls. From a recreational point of view, mass participation in intramural or club activities by all children (no matter what their level of ability) is more desirable than undue emphasis being given to the efforts of a few highly skilled youngsters.

Finally, certain activities may be taught in the physical education program, and then directly used in a special after-school program of recreation. Chalmer Hixson describes an instructional bowling unit for fifth- and sixth-graders in Pontiac, Michigan.¹⁹ This was presented in the gymnasium, with children setting pins, bowling, and keeping scores themselves, and with rotating team competition. So successful was this unit that an after-school program in a commercial bowling center was set up under the sponsorship of the American Junior Bowling Congress. A large number of children participated on all levels of ability, and were thus introduced to a highly popular participation sport. Interestingly, Hixson makes the point that a number of youngsters became closely involved in family recreation through this medium.

Similar examples of direct carry-over practices of recreational skills learned in physical education classes may be cited.

Music Education and Leisure Education

Probably second only to physical education in terms of its potential for leisure education is the elementary school music

Outdoor Education, School Camping, and Leisure Education

Outdoor education and school camping are based on the simple principle that whatever can best be learned in the out-of-doors through direct experience, dealing with native materials and life situations, should be approached in such a setting. Outdoor education might be defined as "those learning experiences which are based on a resourceful use of the natural environment," consisting usually of brief trips or uses of natural resource areas. A specialized aspect of outdoor education is school camping. This consists of living and learning through direct experiences in an outdoor camp setting, as a basic part of a school curriculum; it usually extends over a period of several days.

What is the philosophy underlying school camping? It is based on two essential elements: (1) the nature and needs of children, and (2) the changing character of modern society.

Children today are viewed as active learners and problem-solvers who seek real meaning in educational experiences. They are interested in challenging situations, exploring unknown environments, and doing tasks that are socially constructive. At the same time that they need group affiliations and status among their peers, they also develop an increasing degree of independence and self-reliance.

In terms of the changing character of modern society, our physical environment has become so choked by urban sprawl that there is a need for all of us, particularly children, to get closer to nature, to sense its beauty, and to be free, even temporarily, from the emotional stresses and pressures of everyday living.

Julian Smith, director of the Outdoor Education Project of the A.A.H.P.E.R., puts it this way:

To increasing millions of Americans, the outdoors holds adventure, relaxation, and better living. To educators, the land and all its resources offer avenues for realism in living and learning. Recognizing that many things can be learned best in outdoor settings, such as school sites, parks, camps, farms and forests, gardens, and many other community resources, the outdoors is being used as a laboratory to help achieve the accepted objectives of education. . . .

Outdoor education . . . is a means of curriculum enrichment through experiences *in* and *for* the outdoors. It is not another discipline with prescribed objectives like science and mathematics; it is simply a learning climate which offers opportunities for direct laboratory experiences in identifying and resolving real-life problems, for acquiring skills with which to enjoy a lifetime of creative living, for attaining concepts and insights about human and natural resources, and for getting us back in touch with those aspects of living where our roots were once firmly established. . . .²⁴

What are the specific purposes of outdoor education and school camping? They include the following: (1) to encourage democratic living, (2) to offer meaningful work experience, (3) to provide practice in healthful living, (4) to allow for appreciation and knowledge of nature, (5) to enhance spiritual development, (6) to create better teacher-pupil understanding, (7) to provide opportunity for developing new recreational skills and interests, (8) to develop a sense of personal responsibility, and (9) to provide practical applications of classroom learnings.

While practices vary, school camping tends to involve the upper elementary or lower junior high school grades. Usually, whole classes are transported to a camp which may be the property of the school system, a recreation or park department, or some other private or public agency, for a period of one or two days up to two or more weeks. The most frequent period is about five days. While there, children are involved in a great variety of experiences: planning and cooking meals, building or improving shelters, doing conservation work (applying soil control, planting trees, learning fish-and-game management, and making surveys), and studying various academic subjects (science, mathematics, art, or English, for example) in the light of the natural environment.

This is, in the truest sense, a laboratory experience which provides important learnings in the following areas:

1. *Educating for Health.* Through participation in vigorous physical activities, direct planning for good nutrition, and healthful living habits and routines, and a focus on problems of cleanliness, sanitation, and good grooming, health learnings are enhanced.

2. *Social Living Laboratory.* School camping obviously affords an intensive group living experience, in which children learn to cooperate with others of other national, racial, or religious back-

grounds to accept responsibilities, and are exposed to socially approved ways of behaving.

3. *Providing Purposeful Work.* As indicated before, the tasks which must be accomplished with respect to food, clothing, shelter, travel, and cleaning up the camp environment are *real* ones. Frequently, parents comment that when children have returned from school camping trips, they demonstrate much greater responsibility and willingness to take on duties about the home.

4. *Learnings Related to Environment.* Depending upon the particular setting, children may have a great number of direct experiences related to science, such as botany, geology, astronomy, or horticulture. Direct learnings in mathematics, writing, arts, or social science may also be based on the camp setting.

5. *Leisure Education Outcomes.* A unique focus of outdoor education and school camping is that they provide a special opportunity to learn and practice a great variety of recreational skills. These include such activities as hiking, boating, and water activities; shooting and hunting; casting and angling; archery; nature study; winter sports, and the like.

Frequently, one finds that the recreational activities carried on as part of outdoor education or school camping are closely integrated with other activities which are academically oriented. For example, the Roslyn, New York, public schools have had for years a program in marine science, based on their location on Long Island Sound. They plan to expand this program

... with the acquisition of a larger boat for marine science study to supplement the boat which was built by the schools some time ago and which has had extensive use. The new boat would serve as a floating marine science classroom for all grades and would accommodate an entire class, the classroom teacher, and marine science specialists. The boat would also provide training in boat handling and boating safety, fishing, and skin diving for junior and senior high school groups.²⁵

This is an excellent example of the blending of recreational and academic purposes within a single outdoor education venture, particularly appropriate in this case because of the school's geographical location. Based on all indications, the boom in outdoor recreation is going to continue in the years ahead, with more and more land and water areas being developed and made available by governmental authorities. In the light of this, the leisure educa-

tion aspect of outdoor education will also become increasingly important.

Leisure Education and the Co-Curriculum

The modern concept of education holds that all activities and experiences which take place under the jurisdiction of the school may properly be considered part of the curriculum. Thus, class trips, clubs, sports, recess activities, home periods, assemblies, and all similar events or activities, are usually termed "co-curricular." They contribute meaningfully to the goals of the school although not always to its specifically academic objectives. They are therefore considered worthy of serious concern. It is within the range of co-curricular activities that much leisure education is carried on. In fact, as the previous chapter has indicated, school administrators view this as the chief avenue for leisure education and recreational experience.

As a consequence of heightened emphasis on academic achievement during the past several years, there have been strong pressures to reduce the co-curricular program.

In a recent *Life* magazine article on homework, the point was made that, rather than take work home, children would be able to do the same amount of work "faster and better under a teacher in a classroom. To get more school time, the school day could be lengthened and work done in supervised study halls." This is not a mere whimsical suggestion. Paul Woodring, a distinguished educational authority, points out that "if time-consuming social and committee activities were dropped, kids could get seven hours of hard intellectual activity, and homework would not be necessary."²⁸

Life later quotes Woodring as saying that "children need time to turn their curiosity loose, time for hobbies, time to think, time to read the things they like to read. I'm afraid that the great emphasis on hard work and homework is part of our total pattern of conformity." What this seems to say is that Woodring believes that children have a need for leisure and recreational activity, but that he feels that the organized co-curricular program of the school serves little value and might well be dispensed with. This would

free the afternoons for supervised study, and the evenings for self-directed play. It is based on the rather naïve idea that most children, if left to their own devices, would use their leisure time in constructive or fruitful ways. It rejects the idea that school-sponsored clubs, intramural programs, or special interest groups supplement the curriculum and provide enjoyable and valuable experiences for children. In a sense, it is a plaintive cry for autonomy rather than group activity.

Recognizing that there has been a considerable shift in the thinking of American educators and parents since the 1940's, we ask, has it gone this far? Are we so little concerned with the goals of social adjustment and group learnings that we are prepared to accept Woodring's view? The school administrators surveyed (Appendix DE, items 93, 94, 95) do not seem to feel this way. Nor would most parents or children, in the author's judgment. An *overemphasis* on academic, highly rigorous intellectual studies would be self-defeating and would exclude many important learnings.

Within the co-curriculum, two major categories of activities provide important outcomes with respect to leisure education:

1. Activities sponsored directly by the school, usually with teachers in charge. These include special interest clubs or performing groups, intramural sports programs, and trips and outings of all sorts. They are usually closely integrated with the instructional program.

2. Activities carried on within the school or on its grounds, but sponsored by parent-teacher organizations, community recreation departments, or other special organizations. Frequently, these make use of outside leadership; they are often closely linked to the instructional program, but not necessarily so.

CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES SPONSORED DIRECTLY BY THE SCHOOLS

Many elementary schools have a variety of club or special interest activity programs for children, which are directly related to academic subjects or which are outgrowths of classes in physical education, art, English, music, science, and social studies. In some cases, they are based on hobby interests which are not related as

directly to the curriculum. A considerable number of school superintendents and principals who responded to Survey DE referred to such co-curricular programs. Essentially, they are intended to extend the learning process, to enrich experience, to make more meaningful and pleasurable the child's contact with the subject, and, beyond these purposes, to establish leisure-time hobbies and recreational interests related to subject fields.

All the special kinds of events sponsored by the school (trips, school camping, excursions to factories, museums, civic centers, zoos, special performances, and so on) have similar purposes. These usually are open to participation by all children, and tend *not* to provide highly specialized or extremely advanced experiences. Such programs may or may not be viewed as recreational; the name given them is not important, but their outcomes are clearly linked both to the over-all purposes of the school, and to leisure education in particular.

CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES SPONSORED BY OUTSIDE GROUPS

There are many different kinds of special programs which may be sponsored by the P.T.A., such organizations as community music or arts councils or cultural groups, the Junior Red Cross, national science groups, or municipal recreation departments. They are carried on within the school and with its approval and cooperation, but are not really part of its program, either in terms of financial support or program direction. Sometimes these may be part of a community-wide effort; in other cases, they are centered within a single school.

Within a West Orange, New Jersey, junior high school, for example, a community organization called the "Creative Arts Group" has developed a highly successful after-school and Saturday program of creative activities, including courses in art, drama, dance, and science.²⁷ Organized and conducted by a volunteer committee of some 30 adults, and closely integrated with the actual operation of the school (several of its members are also on the board of education), *this program is publicized through school classes, and assists with school assembly programs.*

In the performing fields, dance and drama, children are inspired to express themselves through the medium of body move-

ment, improvisation and pantomime, story telling, choral speaking, and voice and speech development. They give frequent performances.

In the science area, individual interests and exploration are stressed. Within a single year, such diverse projects have been carried out as (1) a discussion of fossils and fossil development; mold and cast making; (2) a lecture on processing of natural rubber and making of synthetic rubber; (3) a discussion of atomic energy; experiments with nutritive values of foods that might be used in underground shelters; (4) discussions of motors and fuels; student-constructed small electric motors; (5) films on biology; dissections of frogs, fish, and earthworms; (6) field trips to research laboratories; and (7) experiments with static electricity and magnetism; construction of a cloud chamber.

The advantages of such special programs are these:

1. High motivation, based on voluntary attendance by those children who have a special interest in the subject or activity, and who want an advanced experience in it beyond what might be offered in the regular school program.

2. An extremely high caliber of specialist instruction, both voluntary and professional. Normally, a school cannot afford to bring in artist-teachers of high caliber because of their fees or because they do not have teaching credentials. In special programs of this type, it has been possible to employ them, or to make use of parents or other adults in the community who have unique skills or backgrounds, as volunteers.

Obviously, one problem in such programs is that of cost. Not infrequently, they must charge fairly substantial registration fees to support instruction and, in some situations, have been refused use of school facilities because of this.

Another example of an outside agency providing a co-curricular program for the schools is that of the Colorado Springs, Colorado, Park and Recreation Department.²⁸ This department conducted a nature experiment for fourth-grade children in the city school system which involved setting up a hiking trail in a unique natural setting close to the city. In cooperation with the school district's fourth-grade curriculum consultant, the recreation specialists established the trail so that it would wind through forest land, past dead ponderosa pine, through a yucca preserve on the

mesa, and past eroded stone "sentinels" in a region that had been covered by the ocean 60 million years before.

They worked with four classroom teachers, discussing the learning to be gained along the trail and providing lists of plant and animal life and geological phenomena to be observed. The children themselves were oriented to the project, maps were distributed, and points of interest described. After four classes actually went on the hike, they discussed their experiences with their teachers and the recreation specialists, drew the objects they had seen, and set up class museums. The entire experience was then evaluated. It was considered so successful that the school district decided to request the Park and Recreation Department to offer the service to *all* fourth-grade classes, involving close to 1,600 children. This unique example of outdoor education clearly provided desirable outcomes both for science education and children's leisure-time interests.

A third example of a special outside service, is the Rollerama program carried on by the Youth Services Section of the Los Angeles City schools. This is a clearly recreational activity which makes use of cleverly designed equipment. A single truck brings leaders, boxes of safety-checked skates with a new type of easy-to-attach clamps, bright yellow cone-shaped pylons for marking off skating areas, and a portable public address and phonograph system. Within moments, the leaders have converted a gymnasium, multipurpose room or playground area into a roller-skating rink. This program has been highly successful, providing an exhilarating afternoon's recreation to groups of between 25 and 250 school children.

There are numerous other examples of special services and programs—either recreational or closely intertwined with the curriculum—that are offered by outside agencies to elementary schools. In many communities, they are offered as part of school district-wide after-school recreation programs, sponsored either by the board of education or by municipal recreation departments. Additional illustrations of such programs will be given in the chapters in this book dealing with school and community recreation sponsorship practices.

To sum up, it has been shown that in the elementary grades, leisure education may be implemented both through curricular experiences and emphases, and through programs of co-curricular

activity sponsored by the schools themselves, or outside agencies. In secondary schools and colleges, it will be apparent that the chief avenue for leisure education will be the co-curriculum, under the direct control of the educational institution itself.

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Leisure Education in Secondary Schools and Colleges

During all the years of university growth, the extracurriculum played a major role in sustaining collegiate values. The athletic teams, fraternities and social clubs, theater groups, newspapers, and magazines, . . . not only allowed young undergraduates to emulate and prepare for life, but also provided them with experiences that they knew to be profoundly human. Just as the extracurriculum in the collegiate era was a response to the sterility of the curriculum, in the university era it became a compensation for the one-sided intellectuality and the overwhelming impersonality of the official scheme of things.¹

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THIS CHAPTER DEALS with education for leisure as it has been carried on in the past by American secondary schools and colleges, and as it is provided today.

First, it must be said that the adolescent in our society is obviously at a difficult and turbulent period of transition in his life. He is subject to a confusion of values, to the strong pull of social conformity within his own age group, and to a tendency to shift back and forth from childish ways of behavior to more adult and mature responses. He is tempted by a host of antisocial and undesirable opportunities in terms of his leisure behavior, as the figures on teen-age driving accidents, drinking, narcotics addiction, venereal disease, and illegitimate pregnancy show only too well.² He is troubled by insecurity about his ability to cope with the adult world (teen-age unemployment reached a new high in the summer of 1963),³ and by the threat of nuclear annihilation that he first learned about when he crouched under a desk in a kindergarten air raid drill. It is not enough to say, "Don't coddle him." It is necessary to help him grow up, to help him understand and learn to deal with the problems of the adult world.

What role does the school play in this process? In an article on "The School, the Peer Group, and Adolescent Development," published in the September, 1958, issue of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, Richard and Ida Simpson write:

Much of the burden of adolescent socialization is placed upon the school. The adolescent spends many of his waking hours in school, or in activities connected with the school. The formal program of the school, however, is not sufficient to meet all the adolescent's needs. The values of the school are not necessarily those of the adolescent. He needs to attain recognition on the basis of values peculiar to his own age group. Extra-class activities participation can help clarify the uncertain status of the adolescent. It may even give him something resembling a "core status" as a "member of the school community." In the current clamor to tighten discipline and produce a generation of intellectuals, we must not lose sight of the function which extra-class activity programs may fulfill.⁴

The background of the secondary school co-curriculum (frequently called by other names, such as "extraclass activities," "extracurriculum," and "allied activities") is worthy of analysis at this point.

The Secondary School Co-Curriculum

The program of student activities in secondary schools followed this general sequence: first, they were resisted and prohibited; next, they were grudgingly accepted and tolerated; last, they were completely supported and viewed as an integral part of the school's curriculum.⁵

Interscholastic sports competition comprised a sizable portion of nonacademic student activities prior to 1910. Nonathletic activities in secondary schools, usually including dramatics, debating, music, and student publications, had made only a modest beginning. Usually, they appealed to the relatively small group of students of high scholastic ability who were college-bound. Interscholastic athletics, on the other hand, attracted chiefly students of lower academic caliber.⁶ In the two decades following 1910, there was a considerable growth of interest in nonathletic co-curricular activities. Reavis and Van Dyke, in a history of four Midwestern secondary schools, found that these activities increased 60 per cent from 1910 to 1920, and 340 per cent from 1920 to 1930. The greatest increase was noted in "civic, moral, and honorary" groups, and "avocational" clubs.

This growth of interest was accompanied by a general educational concern with leisure and its uses; in fact, it was one of the recommendations of the 1918 "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" that the high school principal appoint a director of activities who "should see that the pupils are developing interests that will assist them in later life to use their leisure wisely." Within the schools surveyed by Reavis and Van Dyke, a total of 391 athletic and nonathletic activities for boys and girls were presented during the two decades studied.

Typically, secondary school co-curricular activities today include the following categories and types, among others:

Varsity Athletics: Football, basketball, track and field, tennis, golf, swimming, cross-country, hockey, baseball, riflery, fencing.

Intramural and Club Activities (in addition to those above): Field hockey; volleyball; fieldball, archery; badminton; folk, modern, and ballroom dancing; apparatus and tumbling; bowling;

skating; skiing; horseshoes; hiking; softball; speedball; cheerleading.

Literary Activities: School newspaper, yearbook, literary magazine, debating club.

Music, Drama, Dance and Art: Band, orchestra, glee club, chorus, dramatic club, school play, art workshop, Orchesis (modern dance performing group).

Hobby Clubs and Departmental Clubs: Radio club, science club, foreign language clubs, industrial arts club, airplane model club, nature club, photography club.

Service Clubs, Student Government, and Honor Societies: Student council or general organization, class councils, Junior Red Cross, audio-visual aids club, library assistants club, safety patrol, Arista.

Social Activities: School dances, class parties, junior and senior proms, canteen nights, outings, boatrikes and picnics, class trips.

It has been pointed out that there is a tendency today to view the co-curriculum with an extremely critical eye, and that academically capable students in particular are sometimes discouraged from participation in activities. Nonetheless, it is still the case that students who are of top quality in their academic course work tend to assume leadership positions in co-curricular activities. Furthermore, while varsity athletes years ago used to be weaker academically, today's eligibility rules compel them to maintain clearly passing grades; participation thus acts as an effective means of motivating such students.

To insure the fullest and most desirable outcomes from the co-curriculum, the following questions must be asked:

Does every student in the school have an opportunity to participate in a variety of interesting and constructive nonacademic experiences? Are any students barred because of racial, religious, or economic reasons? Are desirable social and educational values stressed in co-curricular activities? Are proposed new activities carefully reviewed and screened by the school authorities? Is the program well supervised, properly equipped, and, if necessary, subsidized to the extent that financial limitations will not keep some students from participating? Is the work done by teacher advisors recognized, if not in terms of extra pay, at least in terms of load credit? Do co-curricular activities support and supplement

the academic offering? Is student participation both *encouraged* and *limited*, to insure a healthy balance of activity? Are activities scheduled at sensible times during the day, or within a special-activity class period, if there is a commuting student group that might otherwise not be able to participate? Is there frequent and thoughtful student and faculty evaluation of co-curricular practices?

History of Co-Curriculum in Colleges

The history of college social activities and recreational groups is much older than that of secondary schools. It is known that at Harvard College, in colonial days, the youthful students who were preparing for the ministry engaged in many amusements, such as swimming, skating, hunting, fishing, card playing, and drinking. Some of these pastimes were tolerated by college authorities; others were forbidden. The first college club was founded as early as 1717, and social clubs were in full swing by the 1770's and 1780's. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, most of the existing colleges had a number of more or less officially recognized clubs and social activities which their students participated in.

The admission of women to American colleges in the 1830's and 1840's, the founding of Greek letter social fraternities in the 1840's, and the building of the first college gymnasiums in the 1860's all added to the social life and physical recreation enjoyed by college students. As interest in sports grew, intercollegiate participation in competitive athletics—especially rowing, baseball, track and football—grew. In the 1890's, student unions (campus buildings which housed a variety of social and recreational activities) came into being, first in the East and then throughout the country, to serve those students who were not fraternity members.

It was at this point that college authorities came to grips with the importance of the co-curriculum in the total college life. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, wrote in 1909:

The last generation has seen grown up in every college community a great body of student activities, interesting and beneficial in themselves, springing from the social instincts and ambitions of the students. . . . All this has grown up outside of the formal program of studies and yet it represents an educational influence which is very genuine. . . . The time has come when the college faculty should take note of the existence of these forces and attach proper importance to them. . . .⁷

In part, the trend on the part of college administrators to take over responsibility for student activities was because they recognized their potential for educational growth. Partly, too, it happened as college administrators realized that they could no longer afford to ignore the collegiate facts of life: the fraternity hazings and "Hell weeks," the class riots and springtime "panty raids," the kidnapping of rival class officers, and the multitude of excesses that characterized campus life. One sees a reflection of this recognition—expressed constructively—in the following statement, which claims that

. . . the entire personality of the student, his mind, temperament, emotional and physical makeup and ethical attitude, each and all present opportunities for education. This principle accounts for our development of the program of social events, of sports both inter-collegiate and intramural, the encouragement of religious activities and our liberal attitude toward all sorts of organizations and movements. Whole human beings have all of these vital interests and activities. . . .⁸

In 1947, the President's Commission on Higher Education commented:

The full range of student activities—in the dormitories, in student government, in clubs and organizations of all kinds, in all varied social, recreational, and intellectual life of the college—if used constructively for educational purposes, should contribute immeasurably to the outcomes of general education. . . . They can provide invaluable experience in the practice of democracy and in social relationships.⁹

In the view of some historians of higher education, what developed during this period was a climate in which the college and university provided a social—rather than an academic—experience. What became important was not so much the course of study, but rather the environment of friendships, social development, fraternity houses, drinking, proms, big-time athletic competi-

tion, and, naturally, the "gentleman's grade of C." As the organized program of social and recreational activities expanded, new forms of administrative personnel came into being: house parents, student union directors, upper-class student advisors, recreational coordinators, student life administrators, and deans. With specific regard to recreation, Furman describes specific administrative functions that the colleges assumed during the 1920's and 1930's:

1. *Organization.* The college may organize and direct a program of recreational and social activities, or may provide encouragement and guidance in helping students organize their own activities, thus achieving social competence and growing in responsibility.

2. *Leadership.* In addition to administrative personnel, religious counselors, and other college staff members who have a direct responsibility in areas of student living, college faculties usually have a number of individuals with specialized skills who contribute to student recreational activities in addition to their regular teaching assignments.

3. *Facilities.* The well-equipped college of today has a variety of areas, buildings, and rooms specially designed to meet student social and recreational needs: athletic areas, gymnasias, auditoria, music and dramatic rooms, social halls, chapels, game rooms, art workshops, and the like.

4. *Finance.* Colleges and universities which are willing or able to underwrite a major portion of the expenses for student social and recreational organizations and activities (usually in combination with activity fees) increase the effectiveness of these programs.¹⁰

Within recent years, as a consequence of the mid-century emphasis on intellectual and academic standards in education, and a shift in national values, there has been a swing away from the overemphasis on social activities which characterized many campuses. To a considerable extent, the sort of student who was content to barely squeak by in his studies—giving his "all" to social activities—is no longer able to gain admission to a quality college in the first place. In many institutions, Greek letter fraternities and sororities have either been abolished or so severely restricted that their influence has been minimized. The top student has become

an object of admiration, and intercollegiate sports (while still extremely popular, particularly on large state university campuses) have somewhat lessened in glamour. David Boroff writes of the University of Wisconsin: "Football players have become seriously devalued in recent years. They are Saturday's children, neglected the rest of the week. No longer heroes, they are just hulking mercenaries to many students."¹¹

In spite of this apparent trend, there is no question that the social life of today's American college or university still represents an important area of institutional purpose and concern. Having begun to cut away some of the meaningless glamour and disproportionate emphasis on social activity, the colleges nonetheless are focusing on effectively meeting the very real recreational needs of students in an era of strenuous academic study.

Functions of Organized Programs of Recreation in Colleges. Among the functions of the organized program of recreation, whether carried on through the student union director, dean of student life, or recreation coordinator, are the following:

1. To orient students, particularly freshmen or transfer students to campus life, to overcome feelings of newness and homesickness, and to help them initiate contacts with fellow students.
2. To enhance the cultural life of the campus, through a variety of performances, lectures, exhibits, concerts, receptions, seminars, and similar events.
3. To satisfy the natural recreational needs of students, which frequently cannot be met by the limited resources of surrounding communities (in rural areas), and to counteract undesirable recreational attractions (in urban areas).
4. To establish desirable standards of social behavior and to minimize problems of campus discipline, drinking, sex misbehavior, and similar difficulties.
5. To strengthen college or university morale, on an institution-wide level, through widely popular activities or programs, and to give students, through residence halls or centers serving smaller groups, a sense of identification and personal belonging.
6. To build the social competence of students, using their known interests to initiate programs, drawing out their leadership and organizational abilities, and giving them close relationships with faculty members in the conduct of student life programs.

Through all this, obviously, education for leisure is being served. The social life of the campus, properly regarded, is an integral part of the educational life of students. To the degree that academic course experiences are directly linked to co-curricular experiences, these too have leisure education implications. There is a degree of direct focus on it in such fields as physical education, religious education, group work, and sociology, and it is obviously a major concern in the field of professional preparation in recreation leadership, which will be discussed later.

Academic Applications of Leisure Education in Secondary Schools

Returning to the secondary schools, there is less emphasis on leisure education as an objective of academic education than was the case in elementary grades. This is a natural outcome of the more advanced nature of most of the subjects pursued in the high school years. Examining a New York City Board of Education *Curriculum and Materials* publication,¹² which deals with the social studies, we see a considerable concern with leisure and recreation in the elementary grades. In the high school years, this broad approach gives way to a more specific and detailed treatment of problems in social science, civics, geography, history, and economics.

To illustrate, suggested units for Grades K-1 include such topics as "living together in school and in home," "recreation at school and home," "seasonal activities," and "observance of holidays." Grade 3 has topics on "health, safety and recreation" and "living in old New York." A number of other units on the elementary grades lend themselves readily to a consideration of leisure and recreation. But, in the high school years, only one topic in Grade 9, "the individual as a social being," and another elective unit in Grade 12, dealing with problems of democracy, youth, mental and physical health, and law and order (among other concerns), is likely to lend itself to an analysis and discussion of leisure.

However, within the field of citizenship education, an area which has received increased attention in recent years in American

secondary schools, there is a frequent and pertinent emphasis on problems of leisure.

PRACTICES IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

In a 1958 report, *Laboratory Practices in Citizenship*,¹³ published by the Citizenship Education Project of Teachers College, Columbia University, a wide variety of student experiences and projects is described in the following broad areas: political processes, economic processes, the citizen in the community, public health and safety, education, communication, interpersonal relations, and international relations. Under the heading of "interpersonal relations," a number of student projects are described which have direct relationship to recreation. These include:

1. *Evaluating the school's extracurricular program.* Students survey and evaluate the school's extracurricular program and recommend improvements.

2. *Planning and operating a noontime recreation program.* Students negotiate with the school administrator for permission to develop and run a noonhour recreation program. They accept full responsibility for setting up and operating the program.

3. *Establishing a teen-age center.* In a community where there is need for additional recreational facilities for young people, students organize an adult advisory committee and work to establish a teen-age center.

4. *Organizing a hobby club for younger children.* Students enlist the cooperation of hobby-minded students, faculty members, and parents in organizing and operating an after-school hobby club for younger boys and girls.

5. *Presenting a series of children's programs.* Students investigate the entertainment opportunities available for children in the community. In cooperation with parents and interested civic groups, they plan and present a series of matinee programs for children.

6. *Evaluating public recreational facilities.* Students study existing recreational facilities to see how well they satisfy public needs. Where facilities are inadequate, they work toward improving or expanding them.¹⁴

Other special projects involve "building school or community playground equipment," "expanding the community's cultural

activities," "organizing an art lending library," "planning and supervising summer recreational programs," and "establishing a youth hostel." While these may seem to be rather overambitious and beyond the reasonable potential of secondary school students, they were developed from suggestions made by teachers throughout the country, based on what they were *actually* doing.

Clearly, it would not be feasible to attempt to carry out all the suggested projects at a given time; in fact, citizenship education embraces so many areas that probably not more than one or two projects at a given time would be concerned with recreation. Nonetheless, these are illustrative of some of the laboratory projects that have been carried out within this field that have major implications for leisure education. Some might be practical within one situation and impractical in others. All would require a period of development and growth before students gained the personal competence and support of school administrators and adult members of the community needed to follow through effectively on each task.

Through the kinds of activities and groups described earlier in this chapter, and through meaningful activities within the academic curriculum (including those just described as part of citizenship education), the student can be helped to acquire (1) a sense of real involvement in community concerns; (2) the ability to realistically examine social problems or needs and to develop solutions or plans of action for meeting them; (3) the sense of personal worth that comes from effective participation in a working group, particularly working in an altruistic cause; (4) a beginning mastery of techniques for working with others, both peers and adult authority figures; and (5) the acceptance of trust and the discharge of responsibility. All these are essential and important experiences for teen-agers, which may stem from both curricular and co-curricular experiences and which, in turn, contribute to leisure attitudes and values and recreational competence.

Physical Education and Leisure Education

Another area in which there is obviously a close relationship between the formal curriculum and co-curricular activities is physical education. Linked as it is to both intramural and club

participation, and to interscholastic competition, this aspect of the school's program has a major potential for constructive leisure education. In many schools, this potential is effectively realized.

Interestingly, this is perhaps most apparent in a number of private boys' schools, which are generally considered to be outstanding in terms of academic achievement and standards, and least concerned with what some educational critics refer to as "frills." At Andover, for example, the largest nonmilitary boarding school in the United States, there is an extremely heavy emphasis on recreational sports participation. A magazine article states that

. . . all year the juniors (first-year boys) toil at attaining "silver" standards in physical tests, including a "drown proofing" course (copied by the Peace Corps) with a rugged exam—staying afloat for 35 minutes with hands tied behind back. The pride a boy feels when he succeeds is the fruit of Andover's unofficial motto: "Sink or swim."

Every afternoon the juniors spend two hours with the lower-middlers and seniors on the vast playing fields—a sea of runners, jumpers, kickers. All get a chance to excel at one of 17 sports, if not on a varsity team, then on one of four intramural teams in each sport—the red-shirted Romans, the green Gauls, the grey Greeks, the orange Saxons. . . .¹⁵

In too many public secondary schools, however, little effort is made to link the required physical education program and voluntary participation in physical recreation. In addition, in many of these schools, an inordinate amount of stress is placed on interscholastic sports competition—with insufficient opportunity for participation given to students who are not highly skilled.

To illustrate the first point, several years ago Lynn Vendien carried out an extensive study of physical education, physical recreation, and leisure interests of girls in Michigan high schools.¹⁶ She asked a stratified random sampling of girl students throughout the state to list (1) the activities presented in their physical education classes; (2) the school-sponsored out-of-class activities in which they participated; (3) the leisure time activities (not school-sponsored) in which they participated; and (4) the physical activities they would like to take part in, in their leisure. Only a portion of Vendien's findings are shown here; the top ten activities in two categories are listed:

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
PARTICIPATING IN SCHOOL-
SPONSORED ACTIVITIES
(DURING CLASS OR
OUT OF CLASS)

(PER CENT)

1. Volleyball	86
2. Basketball	84
3. Basketball shooting	82
4. Softball	78
5. Calisthenics	55
6. Badminton	53
7. Tumbling	52
8. Square dancing	50
9. Posture	48
10. Games	48

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
PARTICIPATING IN LEISURE
ACTIVITIES (OUT OF SCHOOL)

(PER CENT)

1. Swimming	78
2. Ice skating	67
3. Roller skating	67
4. Social dancing	60
5. Softball	60
6. Boating	58
7. Bowling	54
8. Table tennis	54
9. Tennis	53
10. Basketball shooting	52

The basic point is that there is very little relationship between the physical education activities presented in the school and the activities carried on voluntarily by the students outside of the school setting. Obviously, it would not be possible to offer all the activities desired by the girls within the required physical education program, nor would it be in keeping with the varied aims of physical education to do this. However, within club programs sponsored by the school, and with the imaginative use of outdoor education and school camping, this phase of leisure education could certainly be enhanced. As it happens, Michigan is one of the leading states with respect to school camping practices. What must the situation be like as far as the teaching of outdoor recreation skills is concerned, in other states?

In response to a question, in the author's 1962 survey, "*Studies have shown comparatively little carryover from school physical education to the voluntary chosen leisure time pursuits of students; how might this situation be improved, since this is an accepted goal of physical education?*" recreation educators said (Appendix A, item 19):

Not enough carry-over activities are taught; excessive attention to mass activities, team sports, competitive high school athletics. More individual or dual sports (golf, swimming, tennis, etc.) are needed. More co-recreational activities, more emphasis on activities for the unskilled.

Develop not just skills, but attitudes favorable to leisure-time participation. Provide opportunity to use facilities in free time; expanded outside opportunities. . . .

A large sampling of secondary school teachers throughout the nation was surveyed by the N.E.A. Research Division in 1960.¹⁷ To the question, "*Do you believe that proper emphasis is being placed on interscholastic athletics, such as football and basketball, in the secondary schools of your community?*" they replied:

	(PER CENT)		(PER CENT)
Too much emphasis	40.4	Emphasis about right	
Too little emphasis	3.8	as it is	50.8
		Don't know	3.5

A substantial number, although not a majority, apparently felt that high school interscholastic competition was being over-emphasized; if the question had been further explored, probably the view would have been expressed that we need to do more for those who are not so highly skilled. Curiously, this is a problem inherited by the secondary schools of our nation from the colleges; it was in the field of higher education that high-pressure competitive athletics first appeared, with all the accoutrements of huge stadia, militant alumni pressure groups, and disregard of primary values of education. It is a problem that on the secondary school level continues to be exacerbated by the generous athletic scholarships granted by colleges each year to outstanding high school stars.

In terms of leisure education outcomes, this imbalance in emphasis is important not only because we tend to lose sight of the mass of students, but also frequently the wrong values are established for those who *do* play on the varsity. Peter Dawkins, captain of the football team at West Point in 1958 and a unanimous All-America choice at halfback, later became a Rhodes scholar at Oxford, where he played rugby and hockey. In high schools and colleges in the United States, Dawkins writes that

. . . athletics are considered to be an extra-curricular diversion for those people who are adept while the vast majority of students are mere spectators.

The British viewpoint, on the other hand, is that athletics are an integral part of the educational process; the emphasis is not upon perfection but upon seeing that every student should have the experience of participating in some sort of competitive sport. This attitude exists primarily at the high school level, but it becomes almost habitual and its influence is clearly reflected in university sport. . . .¹⁸

It is clear that in many schools and colleges, physical educators need to do a more effective job of preparing students for leisure involvement and encouraging them to take part in the physical recreational opportunities that are available within the co-curricular program. At the same time, school and college administrators who control athletic policies need to face up to the important issues involved in programs of varsity competition, to insure that the highly gifted few are not being exploited, and that the needs of the majority of students are not slighted.

Other Curricular Areas

In a number of other curricular areas, including fine arts, music, dramatics, dance, and English, there are usually many co-curricular opportunities which extend course learnings and provide advanced creative experiences for highly skilled or specially motivated students. Through interest clubs, publications, and performing groups, the cultural climate of the institution may be enriched and leisure learnings enhanced. Not infrequently, it is within such settings that the most gifted students are able to gain experience that serves them in good stead as pre-vocational learnings. Thus, what was leisure activity, during a period of casual exploration of many interests, becomes professional preparation—as in the case of the college actor or director, the editor of the newspaper, or the director of the modern dance group.

For those students who are actually majors in the field of professional recreation in the 65 or 70 colleges and universities that offer such degree programs, the entire field of activity participation and leadership also offers valuable experience in pre-professional preparation. Apart from those field work or supervised assignments in outside agencies which are usually required of undergraduates in this field (as student teaching is required of education majors), there are many such interesting and valuable opportunities for training on college campuses today. At the Ohio State University, for example, where the Ohio Union employs approximately 250 full-time and part-time personnel, the responsibility of the program director includes

. . . advising a student group known as Ohio Union activities, which may be likened to the volunteer workers in a group-work or recreation agency. This group, some one hundred in number, renders unique and invaluable service to the campus . . . by sponsoring various events. Organized along committee-structure lines, some of its members assist in framing program policies and providing leadership for different functions. Without this assistance it would be practically impossible for a college union to provide the service and activities it gives.

At the same time, the professional staff trains student volunteers in techniques of good committee work and good programming, and assists in pointing out some of the fundamental principles of group work. The carry-over value for the student volunteers should be of importance to community agencies after graduation. For along with the opportunity for a student to use his initiative and gain some recognition on campus comes the realization that community service through meeting recreation needs and interests is a vital concern in today's society. It is not uncommon for some of these volunteers to prepare for careers in the leisure-time field after experiences in extra-curricular activities sponsored by college unions.¹⁹

This is a particularly important outcome of the co-curricular program in American colleges today, in terms of the great need for new recruits into the growing social service field of professional recreation. While it represents a rather specialized objective of the program, it should be increasingly implemented in the years ahead, if the growing numbers of governmental and voluntary agencies in the recreation field are to obtain needed, professionally qualified personnel.

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Community Recreation Sponsorship and the Schools

The schools must be prepared to offer recreational experiences and services. In many communities they already have costly indoor and outdoor facilities located to meet neighborhood and regional needs. They operate classrooms, laboratories and workshops, playfields, aquatics centers, auditoriums and sports facilities. They have a staff of professionally trained leaders, many having recreation experience and interest. . . . In a good recreational situation there is built a bridge of companionship between the adult teacher-leader and youth which is essential to good guidance. . . .

In some areas the school district should be the focal point for the provision of total recreation for all ages. In other communities it may be desirable to work co-operatively in a co-ordinated plan for recreation administration. Whatever the plan, the schools are basic and inseparable components of service, and as such must be full-fledged partners in the recreation program.¹

COMMISSION ON EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF
THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

THIS BOOK HAS thus far dealt with an examination of leisure and recreation in contemporary society and with the task of leisure education as it has been accepted and carried out by American schools and colleges. At this point, the focus shifts to the role played by the public school systems in the sponsorship or co-sponsorship of community recreation programs. The following areas are covered:

1. The early involvement of public school systems in the United States in community recreation sponsorship—particularly between the years of 1900 and 1930.

2. The development, during the 1920's and 1930's, of the community-school concept, with its important implications for the schools in providing leisure-time services and a home for community organizations and activities.

3. An analysis of state legislation empowering school districts and boards of education to sponsor public recreation programs and to impose special taxes for this purpose.

4. An examination of certain factors which underly the trend toward school sponsorship or co-sponsorship of community recreation, including shifting population trends, nature of urbanization and suburbanization, and the changing role of the school within the community.

5. A summary of the conferences, special projects, and publications of national organizations in the field of health, physical education, and recreation which have done much to promote the linkage between recreation and the schools.

6. A digest of the findings of the author's 1962 study, showing the views of recreation educators, professional recreation leaders and administrators, school recreation personnel, and school administrators on the following topics: (a) the advantages and disadvantages of school-sponsored recreation; (b) the type of community in which the school sponsorship arrangement is appropriate, and the type in which it is not; and (c) the kinds of program services and community needs which can best be met by the schools, and those which cannot be.

As Chapter One has pointed out, there has been, for the past 60 years, an accelerating and, by now, solidly based public recreation movement in the United States. During this period, recreation has come to be seen as a major community service—comparable

to health, welfare, or law enforcement—and programs have been instituted on every level of governmental operation and in communities large and small.

Butler has outlined the basic factors supporting the growth of municipally sponsored, tax-supported recreation: (1) it affords a large percentage of the population its only opportunity for forms of wholesale recreation; (2) only through government can adequate land be acquired; (3) democratic municipal recreation includes people of all classes, races, religions, and economic levels; (4) municipal recreation is comparatively inexpensive; (5) local government gives permanence to recreation, unlike programs sponsored by private agencies; (6) the job of recreation is too large for any single agency; municipal government is in the best position to provide an overall, community-wide program; (7) recreation plays an important part in stimulating the local economy; and (8) the people demand recreation and are willing to be taxed for it. Butler quotes the former Mayor Joseph S. Clark, Jr., of Philadelphia, in an address before the National Recreation Congress:

I have no doubt that a careful analysis of community costs would demonstrate that the money spent for recreation is paid back many times over in the additional wealth produced by healthier citizens, in the savings in the mental-health field, and the reduced cost of combatting crime. . . . No elected official could retrace our steps, eliminate recreation as a major function of local government, and expect re-election. Recreation has become a governmental function not from consent, but by the demand of the governed.²

Involvement of the Schools in Community Recreation

It has been demonstrated that the schools have long been seriously concerned about leisure education, as a necessary and important part of the education of students. Running through the history of educational administration, there has been an allied concern with the role of the schools in sponsoring, co-sponsoring, or providing facilities or other forms of aid for programs of municipal recreation. Thus, in July, 1911, the National Education Association passed a resolution approving the wider use of schools

for community social, recreational and civic activities. A number of the major presentations made at the fiftieth annual meeting of the National Education Association, in 1912, had to do with leisure education and community recreation services.³ Under the general heading, "The Relation of the Public Schools to the Movement for Recreational, Social and Civic Opportunity," one report titled "How a Community May Find Out and Plan for Its Recreation Needs" demonstrated sharply that the schools had an important stake in this problem. Some excerpts follow:

Some of the surveys already carried on have revealed striking facts. Thus it has been found in certain cities that over one-half the children were doing nothing after school hours, neither playing nor working; that 70 per cent of children were on the streets; that there was less for the girls than for the boys to do in the way of play; that the moving picture shows were drawing every week a number of patrons equal to twice the population of the entire city; that only from 2 to 9 per cent of the space not taken by streets or alley was free for play, even in cities not considered very congested. . . .

The work of the school systems of the country deserves every dollar appropriated to it, but much of the millions of dollars invested in our school systems is wasted owing to the fact that, outside of school, children form wrong habits due to unwholesome play conditions, and develop traits of character which make much of their school training useless. Because of the size of the task before an adequate recreation system, because of the need of a recreation system to save from loss the enormous investments in schools and other municipal services, because of the call to avoid duplication and waste in the face of this unmet need, many communities are trying to find out and to plan systematically for their recreational needs.⁴

It is interesting to note that, in the light of fervent criticism by Rickover and others of elaborate school plants designed for other than clearly academic uses, as far back as 1912, the National Education Association had recognized the need for the schools to provide facilities for community use. One of the papers delivered at this early meeting was titled "Relation of Schoolhouse Architecture to the Social Center Movement." It pointed out:

A study of the growing use of schools for social and civil, as well as educational activities will reveal . . . the present and desirable relationship of schoolhouse architecture to the social center movement. . . .

This . . . is more and more modifying the arrangement and style of buildings for educational purposes from the kindergarten to the college.

The most obvious effect upon schools up to the present day has been that the front door of the schoolhouse is left unlocked for a greater period each day and for more and more days in the year, so that the key is becoming less and less necessary and ultimately may be thrown away.*

What changes were being made in the physical structure of the schools? It was becoming recommended practice to build elementary schools in the large cities with 30 or more feet of playground space per pupil. Many schools were also providing space for ornamental and experimental gardening; planning assembly halls, gymnasiums, and, rooms; and obtaining equipment for "domestic science and manual training." On the high school level, more schools were being built with "natatoriums and with two gymnasiums," located on spacious ground and athletic fields. Within the schools themselves, small separate heating units were being built so that it was possible to heat only those areas of the school being used for community purposes, rather than the entire school. Increasingly, "impervious materials" were being used in such areas to minimize wear and cleaning expenses; in some cases, so-called public rooms were being given separate entrances, to facilitate after-school use. The report continues:

One may observe today in many localities school buildings embracing assembly halls with stages large enough and adequately equipped for amateur or professional dramatics, for choral work, for lectures, including stereopticon illustration, and for physical culture exhibitions. One may also see branch libraries with separate entrances and arrangements for school and neighborhood uses of all kinds. These features, with the double gymnasiums and natatoriums mentioned above, constitute most, if not all, of the elements already developed and used in response to the social center idea and the enlarged educational outlook up to the present time. One cannot help observing that the influence of the social center is not limited to the "out-of-hour" periods and to the adults, but that it also broadens and deepens the daytime work for the school children as well.*

All of this was based on an increasingly accepted rationale: no community can achieve the fullest possible development without making use of the school as an appropriate agency to house educational, social, and recreational functions. In order to avoid dupli-

cation of services by parks, libraries, settlement houses, and other agencies, the position was also strongly taken by members of the N.E.A. that funds could be saved and the best programs presented, through coordination of efforts by "one agency, according to one plan, in one group of buildings arranged to avoid wasteful duplication of construction and maintenance."⁷ In another presentation, "The Schoolhouse as the Community Center," a number of outstanding programs in this vein were described: the school museum system of St. Louis; the use of the schoolhouse as an art gallery and music center in Richmond, Indiana; the boys' and girls' club organizations developed in the New York City schools, the gymnasium activities of Columbus, Ohio; and various other programs throughout the country.⁸

Early Examples of Recreation Sponsorship by Schools

Which were the first cities to develop programs of school-sponsored social and recreational activities? There were a number of pioneers. In July, 1898, the New York City Board of Education established the Division of Community Centers and Vacation Playgrounds, later known as the Division of Extension Services, with the opening of 18 centers. Through the next three decades, this expanded, as the need for recreation for children, youth, and adults in the city became more and more acute. During the 1930's, this program was considerably helped by leaders provided by the Works Progress Administration.

In 1936, the board of education changed its title to the Division of Recreational and Community Activities, and expanded its function to include the supervision and administration of evening community centers, vacation playgrounds, summer swimming pools, and a permit-granting procedure for the use of school buildings after regular school hours by recognized community groups. The division later became the Bureau of Community Education and has, since 1949, worked closely with the New York City Youth Board in 60 school buildings and low income housing projects throughout the city—and, since 1956, with the New York City Housing Authority. Throughout, the program has been marked by a strong belief in the linkage between recreation and education;

activities have been conducted by licensed board of education personnel, and have been increasingly characterized by small group activities, emphasis on arts and crafts and other cultural activities, and use of guidance and referral services.

Another pioneer in the community use of schools for social and recreational programs was Rochester, New York, which introduced such a program in 1907.

One of the best known programs of school-sponsored recreation was instituted in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in 1911. There, the board of school directors, the common council, and certain civic groups with a concern in this field placed a law before the Wisconsin state legislature to enable cities to organize and conduct public recreation programs. Following passage of this law, Milwaukee opened two social centers and eight playgrounds sponsored by the schools in 1912. This program has expanded steadily since, and today provides a unique and varied set of recreational services under the Division of Municipal Recreation and Adult Education of the Milwaukee Public Schools.

Another major municipality to pioneer in this field was Los Angeles. Playground programs for elementary school children were inaugurated in that city in 1914, on 20 playgrounds. By 1921, some 30 playgrounds were in operation. In 1925, the Los Angeles City schools began operating school playgrounds under the Civic Center Act (passed by the state legislature in 1917 and amended several times to broaden the services offered) with a separate appropriation set up by the board of education for this purpose. Today, the Youth Services Section of the Los Angeles City schools, working closely with the Los Angeles City and County Parks and Recreation Departments, provides a varied offering of recreational opportunities for all ages in over 500 accessible neighborhood school locations.

In the years following, a considerable number of communities large and small turned to the schools to sponsor recreation services, usually for children and youth at the outset, and, in time, for all age groups. In many cases, the school's role was one of co-sponsorship, rather than complete responsibility for the total community program or one aspect of it. Thus, in 1920, Des Moines, Iowa, established by ordinance a Playground and Recreation Commission, whose responsibility was to be the administration of recreation programs for all citizens. The Des Moines Superin-

tendent of Schools is a member of this commission; it receives financial support both from tax funds levied by the city council and from a direct tax levied by the Des Moines Independent Community School District. In many phases of its program, it cooperates closely with the board of education. Similarly, Long Beach, California, in 1929, adopted by popular vote a City Charter Amendment providing for a recreation program which would combine municipal and school recreation activities, programs, and facilities. This program is supervised by a single Recreation Commission, composed of school officials, city officials, and lay citizens.

The Washington, D. C., Recreation Department is under a Recreation Board which was formed in 1942, and which is empowered to conduct the total public recreation program in the district. The board of education cooperates closely with the Recreation Board. By agreement, school buildings and grounds are used for community recreation by the Recreation Department which has jurisdiction over school properties for all uses other than strictly educational ones; for example, it issues permits for the use of school buildings for community groups. To insure suitability for joint use, the planning and design of school buildings is brought before a co-ordinating committee, representing both the educational and recreational programs.

In Cleveland, Ohio, a Joint Recreation Board was created in 1946 by combined action of the Cleveland City Council and the Cleveland Board of Education. For many years, Cleveland citizens had come to believe that the unification of all public resources, areas, facilities, finances, and staff represented an intelligent approach to the public function of providing recreation service. Thus, Community Centers and Playgrounds is today an important division within the Cleveland Board of Education's Department of Instruction.

These were but a few of the communities in which boards of education took on full or partial responsibility for recreation sponsorship. Highly influential in this development was the community-school concept.

INFLUENCE OF THE COMMUNITY-SCHOOL IDEA: FLINT

Implicit in the references cited earlier from the proceedings of the N.E.A. 1912 meeting were certain basic ideas which evolved

into the community-school concept in the 1920's and 1930's. Briefly stated, this envisioned the school as a bulwark of community life, rather than an isolated "island of learning." Hanna and Naslund defined it thus:

A community school is a school which has concerns beyond the training of literate, "right-minded" and economically efficient citizens who reflect the values and processes of a particular social, economic or political setting. In addition to these basic educational tasks, it is *directly concerned with improving all aspects of living in the community* in all the broad meaning of that concept in the local, state, regional, national or international community. To attain that end, the community school is *consciously* used by the people of the community. Its curriculum reflects planning to meet the discovered needs of the community with changes in emphasis as circumstances indicate. Its building and physical facilities are at once a center for both youth and adults who together are actively engaged in analyzing problems suggested by the needs of the community and in formulating and exploring possible solutions to these problems.*

Clearly, school systems in all American communities were not fully invested with the role of "social agent," in the sense just described—that of being a strong motivating force for community study and self-improvement. Chiefly, when this did occur, it was in rural or economically underdeveloped regions or communities, where the school, through careful study of the community, and with ingenious planning, was able to equip youth and adults with needed vocational skills, help in the fuller development of local resources and potentialities, or provide needed health services.

In most areas of the country, the community-school approach followed one or both of these patterns: (1) the school became very much concerned with life in the community, so that its needs, problems, history, geography, vocational, and economic problems and possibilities formed the focus of the curriculum and of class experiences, demonstrations, and group projects; or (2) the physical facilities of the school were made readily available to various groups in the community for community forums, recreational leagues and classes, cultural activities, concerts, dramatic productions, study groups, and other forms of civic programs or social activities. Within this framework, the community is seen as an educational institution in its own right, almost as a big, all-embracing classroom. Equally, the school itself is closely linked

to all other agencies in the community—city councils, youth-serving organizations, park boards—and these in turn are seen as agents in the educational process.

During the period of greatest influence of the community-school approach, a number of exciting programs, based on the approach, were developed. Outstanding among these was the program developed in Flint, Michigan. With the assistance of the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, Flint has developed a significant community-school pilot project. The point of view of this program is expressed thus:

Schools in the city operate as educational, cultural and social centers of their respective neighborhoods. Flint people now subscribe enthusiastically to the philosophy that the schools, built and paid for by all taxpayers, should be used by all taxpayers. The schools shouldn't represent huge investments of taxpayers' money standing idle after 4 P.M. each day, closing up tight on weekends, and shutting down during the summer. . . . In Flint we look to the concept of the community school as the means. We know the same problems, the same resources and the same obstacles can be found in one 10-block area, a school's attendance area, as can be found in the nation. The school can act as the agency that brings the problems and the resources together.¹⁰

In Flint, one of the methods used has been to develop leadership among school principals and community-activity coordinators. Thirty leaders are employed in this latter category by the Board of Education; they teach in the afternoons and spend evenings at school on tasks relating to community study, projects, and the coordination of programs and activities.

Within a single Flint school, after-school and evening activities involve such organizations as a Men's Club, Women's Club, Teen Club, Elementary Boy's Club, Girl's Club, Sunrise Singers Group, and other co-curricular student hobby and service clubs. Youthful groups meet after school hours; adult groups in the evening. Parents are involved in the operation of the school through such committees as Homeroom Mothers, Lunch Committee, Women's Service Club, Pre-School Children's Story Hour, and Parent-Teachers Association. A wide range of activities are presented for all age groups; on Saturday mornings there are organized leagues in basketball during the winter and outside sports during the spring and fall. On Saturday afternoons there are movies for smaller

children, while the fathers who bring them play in the gymnasium with older children.

Other community agencies and organizations, including religious groups which often meet there on Sunday, find a hospitable home in the schools. The Optimist Club has a breakfast, served by the Women's Service Club, every Tuesday morning in the community room. Profits from this project are used to provide accessories for offices and meeting rooms. Parents, because of their close involvement with the schools, take on many responsibilities, such as helping with school trips, enrollment tasks, health projects, volunteer typing, chaperoning, furnishing kitchen and community room equipment, and similar jobs.

Much of this is not too different from what goes on in other communities. What is impressive is the extent of it, and the fact that interest in the schools and in education is so high that there are about as many adults enrolled in the adult high school or adult education program as there are in the regular daytime enrollment of children. Among the many teen-agers who meet in the schools in homemaker clubs, sports activities, youth organizations, and social activities, there is a real sense of involvement and responsible citizenship.

It has been frequently commented that the Flint program could not exist without the assistance of the Mott Foundation. In response, it has been pointed out¹¹ that the subsidy amounts to about 6 per cent of the total educational budget. Should the Mott subsidy be withdrawn, this would mean that, if an individual family paid a school tax of \$400, it would require an additional sum of \$24 to keep the community-school program going. Is it worth this amount, to have this kind of service offered by the schools? Flint's school administrators feel confident that, in their community, it would be.

State Legislation Supporting School Involvement in Community Recreation Sponsorship

Accompanying the increased involvement of the schools in the sponsorship of community recreation, there is an increasing number of state legislatures which, since the turn of the century, have passed laws enabling the public schools to serve in three functions:

(1) conduct community recreation programs, (2) cooperate with municipal agencies in establishing programs, and (3) permit use of facilities by outside agencies.

The author carried out, in the spring of 1963, a survey of responsible officials in state departments of education (Appendix F, items 98-103) that was intended to determine the existence of state legislation empowering school systems to sponsor, or co-operate in the sponsorship of, community recreation programs. Questionnaires were sent to 53 states, territories, and districts; replies were received from 47 of them. Of those replying, 21 (45.6 per cent) replied affirmatively to the question, *"Is there specific legislation in your state, empowering or enabling school districts to operate community centers, or to sponsor or co-sponsor (in cooperation with other municipal agencies) programs of public recreation?"* A total of 25 (54.4 per cent) replied in the negative.

The powers granted to school boards (individually or jointly with other agencies) included the following: (1) to maintain, operate, and manage a system of public recreation; (2) to acquire by lease or purchase lands for recreational use, and, in some cases, to sell lands; (3) to acquire, equip, and maintain land, buildings, or other recreational facilities; (4) to employ personnel (a number of states established certification requirements for personnel); (5) to operate summer camps and programs; and (6) to engage in joint recreation sponsorship with other agencies.

To illustrate the nature of state school-recreation legislation, a number of statutes are here cited, each with a different emphasis or focus:

In the state of Michigan General School Laws, Part II, Chapter 18, we see a comprehensive enabling law:

Sec. 786. Any school district or board may operate a system of public recreation and playgrounds; acquire by lease, purchase or other means, equip and maintain land, buildings or other recreational facilities; employ a superintendent or director of recreation and assistants; vote and expend funds for the operation of such system; or may cooperate with any city, village, county or township in the operating and conducting of such system in any manner in which they may mutually agree; or they may delegate the operation of the system to a recreation board created by any or all of them, and appropriate money voted for this purpose to such board; and any school district or board may appropriate money to be paid to the recreation board to be used

by it for the purpose of maintaining the employers' contribution to a public school employees' retirement fund or to a city retirement fund for recreation employees.

In Utah, under the heading of "Recreation Facilities," the following statute specifically empowers the use of schools as civic centers:

53-21-1. *School Buildings and Grounds.* There shall be a civic center at all public school buildings and grounds where the citizens of the respective school districts may engage in supervised recreational activities, and where they may meet and discuss any and all subjects and questions which in their judgement appertain to the educational, political, economic, artistic and moral interests of the citizens of the community; but such use of public school buildings and grounds for such meetings shall in no way interfere with any school function or purpose.

The North Dakota Century Code (1960), Chapter 40-55, on Public Recreation, includes a statute requiring that there be school board representation on recreation boards or commissions:

40-55-06. *Establishing Recreation Board or Commission—Members—Terms—Vacancy—Compensation.* If the governing body of any municipality, school district, or park district determines that the power to provide, establish, conduct, and maintain a public recreation system shall be exercised by a recreation board or commission, such governing body shall by resolution or ordinance establish in such municipality a recreation board or commission which shall possess all the powers and be subject to all the responsibilities of the local authorities under this chapter. . . . One member of such recreation board or commission shall be chosen from the legal membership of the park district board, or board of park commissioners of the municipality, and one member of the legal membership of the school district board or boards within the corporate limits of such municipality. . . .

In the state of Washington, under Chapter 28.14, Division for Recreation, there are statutes fixing recreation as a specialized service of educational authority, on the state level:

(83) 28.14.010. *Establishment of Division.* There is established in the office of the superintendent of public instruction a division of special educational service to be known as the division of recreation.

(84) 28.14.020. *Supervisor—Appointment—Qualifications—Salary—Duties.* The superintendent of public instruction shall appoint a super-

visor who shall be qualified for such position by training and experience and shall fix his salary. The supervisor shall coordinate and supervise the programs of recreation operated by the school districts of the state. He shall cooperate with county superintendents of schools and with school district officers and teachers and encourage the establishment of local recreation programs. He shall also meet with and consult with recreation committees.

A typical statute enabling local school boards to establish and equip playgrounds is found in New Jersey (Education, Article 10, Public Playgrounds and Recreation Places):

18:5—43. *Establishing and Equipping Playgrounds; Funds.* The board of education of any school district may establish public playgrounds and recreation places of such size and dimensions and in such locations within and without the school district as the board shall think suitable. The board may lease, purchase, or condemn, or acquire by gift or otherwise, the lands necessary for such playgrounds and recreation places. . . .

Under the Virginia School Laws, school boards are empowered to establish and operate vacation schools and summer camps:

22-55. *Operation of Vacation Schools and Summer Camps by School Boards.* The school board of any county, city or town, or any two or more of such school boards acting in conjunction, may establish and operate or cause to be established and operated, for the benefit of children of school age, vacation schools or camps for the advancement of education, physical training, health, nutrition, the prevention of communicable diseases, or for any purpose deemed by such board or boards beneficial to children of school age requiring special training or attention or which will promote the efficiency of their respective school systems. . . .

In response to a question on taxing power for recreation, nine states responded "yes" to the question, "*Is there a special taxing power granted in your state to school districts, to support community recreation services or programs?*" The specific provisions of recreation tax laws varied from state to state. Examples were a levy of two mills on the dollar of assessed valuation; a tax not exceeding five mills on each dollar of assessed valuation; ten cents per \$100 of assessed property valuation. In one case, school districts are authorized to raise money to be given to the recreation

board for use. California is unique in that its Civic Center Community Recreation Tax Law provides finances for civic center and recreation purposes through a fund that is completely separate from instructional budgets. A summary of three major California statutes which effectively equip school districts in that state to do an outstanding job of recreation sponsorship follows:

Civic Center Law. Education Code 16551-16565 provided that a civic center be established in every public school building where citizens, P.T.A., and youth groups may meet and engage in supervised recreational activities. (1917)

Community Recreation Enabling Law. Education Code 16651-16664 states the purposes of community recreation; authorizes "cities, counties . . . and public school districts to organize, promote, and conduct such programs of community recreation as will contribute to the attainment of general educational and recreational objectives, for children and adults of the State," authorizes school districts to use buildings, grounds, and equipment to carry out such purposes; and defines recreation to include a wide range of activities. (1939)

Community Services Tax. Education Code 20801 allows a five cent tax rate per \$100 of the assessed value of property within the district (elementary, five cents; secondary, five cents; junior college, five cents) above the educational tax limit, if necessary to support a community recreation program. In a unified district, the increase shall not exceed ten cents per each \$100 of assessed value of property in the district. (1951)

It will be demonstrated in later chapters that those states, particularly California, which have established special tax bases for school-sponsored recreation programs, have by far the outstanding programs of this type. In general, the state officials who responded to the 1963 survey indicated that in their states school sponsorship of recreation was either growing or remaining the same (Appendix F, item 101), and that it was a desirable trend, in their personal view (Appendix F, item 100). In only eight of the 47 states or territories that replied, were there as many as 50 per cent of the school districts in the state estimated to be sponsors or co-sponsors of community recreation programs, in spite of this generally favorable view (Appendix F, item 103)

Factors Promoting the Trend

In addition to the community-school concept and the enactment of state laws empowering school districts to take over responsibility for community recreation, certain other factors were instrumental in promoting this trend. One of these was the shift in residential living after World War II.

MOVE TO THE SUBURBS

In the late 1940's and in the 1950's, there was a tremendous move, throughout the country, by young couples to suburban housing developments surrounding urban centers. Thus, there came into being extensive tracts of one-family homes, so-called "bedroom communities," most of whose wage-earners commuted daily to nearby metropolitan centers. Within these newly expanded suburban communities, several factors made it logical for the schools to assume recreation responsibilities:

1. In many cases, homes were built en masse, without any concern for the provision of park or other recreational areas. Obviously, when potato fields or truck-farming sites were rapidly transformed into housing developments, there existed a limited number of governmental or other civic agencies or organizations equipped to take on the sudden wave of new responsibilities—including provision of leisure services. In many suburban areas, there was no single geographical core about which civic life might center, and to which people could feel they "belonged." Thus, within the "suburban sprawl," an individual might commute from one train station or bus depot, shop in a shopping center attached to no community, attend church in one town, pay school tax in another town or district, and receive police or fire protection services from a different political subdivision.

2. Within such areas, with overlapping and confusing geographical boundaries (in which one might pay taxes to a village, a school district, and a township—none coterminous with the others—and all providing different kinds of services), the natural center of community living frequently became the school. Here,

through school board elections, membership in the P.T.A., and involvement on school committees, many parents found their first significant involvement on moving to the suburbs. Thus, the school came to be regarded as a focus of community life, as well as the one experience which all had in common (other than those parents whose children went to parochial schools).

3. In many cases, the waves of families that moved into such suburban areas found that the schools were tremendously overcrowded, or that they did not exist at all. In many neighborhoods, it was necessary to acquire land and build elementary schools at once and, before long, secondary schools as well. The expense of voting through large bond issues to pay for new educational plants often resulted in the following two reactions: (a) a resistance to other community ventures or expenditures that appeared less essential than the immediate, crucial need to build and equip new schools, and pay for teachers; and (b) the comment, "Here is the land we need, and the buildings, and even the source of leadership. Why not use them for recreation? Why should we duplicate all these—and how can we afford to?"

As a consequence of these factors, a considerable number of newly developed or expanded suburban communities established recreation programs that were sponsored by school boards and administered on a school district basis in the years following World War II.

SUPPORT OF CONCEPT BY RECREATION EDUCATORS

Another element supporting this trend has been the interest and support of recreation educators. These individuals, usually professors in charge of major curricula for recreation leaders and administrators in American colleges and universities, have over the years tended to support the concept that the schools have a major responsibility for sponsoring or co-sponsoring community recreation programs. Obviously, this is not a unanimous position (Appendix A, items 5-21), and many of the most influential and highly regarded recreation educators oppose it, chiefly on the grounds that recreation is a separate discipline and should not be an offshoot of education.

Nonetheless, recreation educators have given both theoretical

and practical support to school involvement in recreation programs based on the following points:

1. There is the conviction that the community-school concept is sound and should be implemented, and that education and recreation are closely allied as disciplines and in terms of basic methods and objectives. This idea, based on the belief that recreation is educational and that education must promote leisure values and skills, would then lead to a natural acceptance of the tie between education and recreation, and to the belief that the school is a logical sponsor of community recreation.

2. As a matter of departmental affiliation, the majority of recreation educators are housed within departments of health and physical education in schools of education. Realistically, this occurred because the bulk of organized recreation in the past has been for children, and has involved physical activities. Thus, there was a blurred line of distinction between physical educators and recreation leaders. Not infrequently, the physical educator worked part-time or summers as a recreational leader, or moved (without training other than a required course or two in recreation) into a professional position in recreation. In most state departments of education, for example, the director of health and physical education is also in charge of recreation. Thus, the two fields have been traditionally linked.

Whatever the historical background or justification, recreation educators, through their professional education organization, the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, have done much to promote the acceptance of recreation sponsorship responsibilities by school systems. Through conferences, special projects, and a number of publications, they have given strong support to this movement, particularly in the late 1950's and early 1960's.

The Public Recreation Section of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation established a group of six regional "task forces" in the mid-1950's, to develop recreation policies for education districts. One of the six, the "Eastern Task Force," published in 1956 a comprehensive statement titled *Recreation Policies for School or Education Districts*.¹² It affirmed strongly the relationship between recreation and the schools, both in terms of leisure education and recreation sponsorship. Although,

in its foreword, the statement referred to "many public, voluntary and private agencies" which "have an important share in community-wide recreation services," in the body of the publication the idea is strongly promoted that *each* school district has a duty to provide a program of community recreation services, no matter what the circumstances in the particular community are.

In this 1956 document, the following policies are clearly enunciated:

1. The Board of Education through its chief education officer and his staff should devise a plan consistent with a sound concept of school-community cooperation for the development of recreation.

2. The Board of Education accepts the responsibility . . . for keeping the community accurately informed about its recreation and for understanding community attitudes and aspirations for community recreation.

3. The Board of Education . . . should devise a plan to educate the administrative, instructional, and noninstructional personnel of the significance and importance of recreation as an integral part of the total education program.

4. The Board of Education . . . should make certain that the recreation budget is a definite, integral part of the budget for education.

5. The education district should conduct the program of education so that desirable outcomes will be achieved in the use of leisure. . . .

6. The education district should provide a program of organized recreation to meet the interests and needs of children, the youth and adults in the district and community.

7. The education plant should be planned so that it will be functional for a modern program of education and for an organized recreation program, with the elementary school serving as a neighborhood center and the secondary school serving as a community center.

8. An advisory committee to the Superintendent should be formed to study the present and potential recreation program of the community and to advise periodically as to the needs for redeveloping and/or replanning recreation in the community.

9. The Board of Education . . . should receive regular reports of the progress of recreation in the school district and community. . . .

10. The Board of Education . . . should devise a plan for continuous evaluation and improvement of the recreation program.

11. The administrative structure of recreation should be designed so that the recreation personnel can function as an integral part of the total community education program.

12. The Board of Education . . . [should] select specially trained and qualified recreation personnel.

The group that composed this statement was not restricted solely to recreation educators; it included also directors of school-sponsored community recreation programs, school administrators, and state education department representatives. But it clearly shows the point of view of a large group of recreation educators in its strong support of the school as community recreation sponsor, and its implication that every school system has an obligation to conduct a program of organized recreation. This position is naturally presented by the majority of professional recreation administrators who are municipally employed.

In 1957, a major conference was sponsored by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation that dealt with education for leisure. This was held with such cooperating or co-sponsoring organizations as the American Camping Association, American Recreation Society, the Athletic Institute, the United States Office of Education, the Association of College Unions, the American Association of School Administrators, and the Associations of Elementary and Secondary School Principals.

In the conference report that followed, *Education for Leisure, The Community Approach to the Leisure Problem*,¹³ a wide variety of talks and discussions were presented or summarized. These covered such topics as "Leisure and Fitness," "The School's Responsibilities in Education for Leisure," "The Community's Responsibility in Education for Leisure," and "The Community-School Concept."

Whenever the actual organization of community recreation services was discussed at this meeting, the overriding emphasis was on the community-school approach to sponsorship. At no point was there the suggestion that there are certain limitations or weaknesses characteristic of many school-sponsored recreation programs, or that in most communities it is a municipal agency that acts as sponsor.

Another major national conference was held in 1959. This one (co-sponsored by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the United States Office of Education) was concerned with school recreation. The participants at this meeting recognized the responsibility of boards of education to "initiate community recreation services where necessary or to cooperate with existing recreation service agencies" in the conduct of recreation programs as follows: (1) The board of education administers and conducts total community recreation

programs. (2) The board of education pools its funds, facilities, and resources with another governmental agency to jointly operate a community recreation program. (3) The board of education cooperates with another governmental agency by permitting the use of school district physical facilities in programs operated by the outside agency.¹⁴

The document, *School Recreation: National Conference Report*, which sums up the findings of the 1959 conference, makes a strong case for the assumption by the school of major responsibility for recreation, and cites its unique advantages for this role. The following recommendations were made: (1) Schools should achieve maximum articulation between instruction and recreation. (2) Schools should coordinate and mobilize the total community resources for recreation. (3) Schools should develop cooperative planning of recreation programs and facilities. (4) The schools should interpret recreation to the people.

In addition, the 1959 Conference developed a considerable number of detailed recommendations with respect to leadership (levels of responsibility, required training, and so forth), program content, community relationships, facilities, and finance. Throughout, although other alternatives are cited, the focus is on the optimum situation—the one in which the school takes on the major responsibility for community recreation as the best equipped and most logical agency. The impression one has in reading the conference report is that, without doubt, this is the appropriate administrative arrangement for every community, and that, in fact, it is rapidly spreading throughout the country. In an article, which refers to the 1959 Conference, Corbin writes:

Growth of school-sponsored recreation is a reflection of the proven role played by this means of coping with community-wide recreational needs. Its acceptance throughout the country is a vindication of those who sensed its worthwhileness from the start. . . . Deservedly, this highly-regarded approach is achieving increased acceptance and recognition throughout the United States.¹⁵

As another evidence of the support given by recreation educators of school-sponsored recreation, the 1961 yearbook of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation was titled *Leisure and the Schools*.¹⁶ Unlike a number of the other documents cited, this publication does not automatically

assign community recreation responsibility to the schools alone. At one point, the choice is made clear:

It is most important that responsibilities for a comprehensive and complete community recreation program be centered in the agency or agencies best capable of doing the job. Should the school be the agency within a community that can best fulfill the responsibility of sponsorship, it should make every effort to do so to the fullest extent possible.¹⁷

While the essential point of view expressed in this yearbook is that the schools are admirably equipped to do the job of recreation sponsorship, it does thus concede that other agencies may also be logical choices. In fact, at a later point, the role of the school as a *cooperating* agency is also discussed. It is noted that, in many communities, other municipal agencies do an excellent job of carrying on community recreation programs and that, when this is the case, it is imperative for the school to realize that it has an important stake in the program and cooperate fully. Although this statement is somewhat broader than the others which have been summarized here, it does not even begin to touch on the controversial nature of the school's involvement in recreation sponsorship. For example, nowhere does it suggest that many professional recreation administrators are strongly opposed to the school's assumption of this role.

Opposition by Professional Recreation Administrators

An extremely high percentage of superintendents of recreation commissions, or directors of recreation and park departments (operating under city councils, city managers, or other forms of local or county government) are strongly opposed to the schools as recreation sponsors. The author questioned municipal recreation officials in this way: "*In general, do you feel that it is desirable for public school systems to take over major responsibility for conducting community recreation programs?*" The replies (Appendix B, item 39) were

		(PER CENT)
Yes	26	11.7
No	188	84.7
Doubtful	8	3.6

Much of the opposition on the part of municipal recreation directors is apparently based on antagonistic or uncooperative attitudes shown them by school authorities, in terms of understanding the purposes of recreation or of a willingness to let school facilities be used for recreation. A number of brief examples follow:

School functions take priority over our activities and they are often cancelled out even though we have them scheduled in advance. [*Beaver Dam, Wisconsin*]

They paint the gym floors the day after school closes. [The buildings are idle all summer.] [*Montclair, New Jersey*]

We are supposedly on a first priority, yet find other groups reserving a year or two in advance. A custodian always has to be on duty, sometimes two. [*Wilton, Connecticut*]

Ninety-five percent of school principals resent use of their schools. [*San Antonio, Texas*]

By far the greater number of specific objections, however, related to the ability of the schools to sponsor superior recreation programs. The repeated implication was that recreation would inevitably be a second-class service under their sponsorship. Several statements by municipal recreation officials illustrate this point:

Where one places recreation is in my opinion closely related to the value and importance one gives it. If recreation is the social force which many of us believe it to be, it should be given equal status with education, and should not be subordinated to it. [*Kansas City, Missouri*]

I know there is a national movement to get public recreation placed under the supervision of school superintendents, but the only basis that would be advantageous would be the saving of money to a small extent, but not enough to counteract the better recreation program that is possible under a Recreation Superintendent who is free to plan and direct according to the philosophy of his profession. [*La Porte, Indiana*]

Recreation and parks needs have become so increasingly important that the job cannot be done properly by an agency set up to perform another major area of service. A single administrator could and would not perform both effectively. One will suffer, and if it is a school administrator, the recreation program would suffer or be inadequate. [*Opelika, Alabama*]

I feel it is possible for any school to be able to offer a recreation program if adequately staffed and equipped, but I think the public feels, and I agree, that schools should concentrate on education and cooperate when possible with recreation agencies; but they should be kept separate. Any recreation agency under the school department would certain-

ly find its program the last thing added and the first thing cut from school budgets. . . . [South Kingstown, Rhode Island]

Would not function as a recreation program should. It would undoubtedly be highly regimented and de-emphasize creativity. Schools already have enough to do and recreation would take a back seat. [Pendleton, Oregon]

Mass confusion in a different field; will hold back the third fastest growing profession in America. [Orlando, Florida]

Clearly, here we have a difference of opinion. A majority of recreation educators and a number of state education department officials declare themselves in favor of school-sponsored recreation. Through the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, they do their best to promote it. On the other hand, a majority of professional recreation executives and, by implication, their professional and service organizations, the National Recreation Association and the American Recreation Society, are decidedly opposed to the idea, in terms of the capability of the schools and the appropriateness of this administrative arrangement. Where does the truth lie? It might be wise to examine the merits of the argument: what are the advantages and disadvantages of school-sponsored recreation?

Drawn from a number of sources,¹⁸ the following arguments are those most frequently cited in favor of school sponsorship or co-sponsorship of community recreation programs.

ADVANTAGES

1. *Close Relationship in Purpose and Content.* It is held that recreation and education complement each other in terms of broad purposes and specific content. In a broad sense recreation is educative, and education builds recreational competence. Having the recreational program sponsored by the school makes it possible to provide carry-over activities based on curricular experiences, and thus to extend the school's influence beyond class hours.

2. *Available Facilities.* School authorities control the most useful sites, buildings, and special recreation facilities available in most communities. These should be used to the maximum for the taxpayer's benefit, and expensive duplication should thus be avoided. Having the school itself conduct recreation programs

avoids problems that develop when other civic agencies attempt to use the school's facilities.

3. *Location.* The school is usually centrally located in terms of major residential areas: often it is the only civic agency, therefore, in a position to provide recreation services. This is especially true in rural areas, with dispersed populations.

4. *Leadership.* School teachers represent the best single source of leadership for community recreation. Their training and skills are frequently suited to recreation leadership, and their hours coincide with recreation schedules, permitting them to do part-time and summer recreation work.

5. *Contact with Children.* The schools represent the only community agencies that have automatic, direct contact with children and youth, at least five days a week. Thus, they represent an effective means of reaching them and of drawing them *into* leisure activities.

6. *Status and Strength.* Having the school responsible for community recreation takes it out of a politically controlled situation, and is likely to result in more stability, continuity, and more effective administration. Recreation assumes some of the status of education within the community, and salaries tend to be higher for recreation personnel.

DISADVANTAGES

Many of the same points are mentioned by those who are critical of school recreation sponsorship. They see them as weaknesses, rather than as strengths:

1. *Differences in Basic Philosophy and Concern.* It is held that there is a basic conflict in philosophy between educators and recreation professionals; educators do not appreciate the importance of leisure and have not really attempted to carry out the objectives of leisure education or to cooperate fully with recreation programs in the past.

2. *Essential Purpose.* Since the major concern of the schools is education, and since they already have their hands full with this responsibility, recreation becomes a secondary matter when it is sponsored by the schools. As an important social service, recreation should maintain a separate identity and not be an offshoot of education.

3. *Program Scope and Emphasis.* School-connected recreation serves chiefly children and youth. Other age levels are not served, partly because the school is in use during the daytime hours when they might meet. Often, the heavy weight of programing is summer-time, rather than year-round. Program emphasis is frequently too formal and highly structured; recreation must be voluntary and less formal.

4. *Financial Support.* Often the schools, because of other pressing needs, are unwilling to grant sufficient funds to support an effective recreation program. Addition of this service raises the educational proportion of the municipal budget too high, and taxpayers object. Under pressure, school administrators tend to view recreation budget items as expendable. In some cases, the use of school funds and facilities for recreation purposes is limited by state law. The point is made by some critics that the schools are no more free of political influence than municipal departments are.

5. *Community Involvement.* The school often lacks important facilities needed for recreation, and tends not to cooperate effectively with other community agencies, to obtain use of needed areas. Also, the school often refuses to permit private or voluntary community agencies to use its equipment or facilities. In general, it is not seen as an effective agency for drawing upon varied community physical and human resources.

6. *Leadership.* While teachers are available, they are not specially trained in recreation, which is a profession in its own right. They tend to be too academic and formal, and to lack a recreational point of view. Often, the school assigns a physical education teacher to the recreation responsibility, resulting in a one-sided program emphasis.

These views, drawn from the literature and from recreation educators' and municipal recreation administrators' response to the author's 1962 survey, obviously are in conflict. In a number of cases, the same point is seen in a completely reversed light. This is so for two reasons: The first is obviously personal bias which influences judgment. The second factor is that circumstances vary in localities, states, or regions. In some states, school-sponsored recreation is in a very advantageous financial position; in others, it is severely limited. In some communities, teachers who take on recreation responsibilities must be trained in recreation as well as education; in others, there is no such requirement. Therefore, be-

cause of varying circumstances and conditions, the question, "Should school systems sponsor community recreation programs?" is not really meaningful. What makes more sense is to ask, "In what kinds of communities *should* the schools take a major responsibility for recreation, and what kinds of program services are they best equipped to offer?"

Circumstances for School Recreation Sponsorship

APPROPRIATE CIRCUMSTANCES

Both recreation educators (Appendix A, items 8—11) and municipal recreation directors (Appendix B, items 42—45) had essentially the same reactions to these questions. They felt that school-sponsored recreation was most appropriate under the following circumstances:

1. In small communities (population figures were suggested, such as under 5,000, or under 10,000); in economically disadvantaged areas that cannot support adequate programs of public facilities or services; or in sparsely populated areas.

2. In communities where the school building is the only public facility available, or the school is the only governmental unit coterminous with those being served (as in an unincorporated area, or in a consolidated school district in a rural area.)

3. In communities where services are not being provided; where there is a lack of other recreation agencies or qualified leadership; where the local government refuses to allot funds for an independent recreation program and the citizens of the community do not feel strongly enough to press for this.

These ideas represented a general consensus, although a number of municipal recreation directors felt that the schools also had an important role to play in large urban centers.

INAPPROPRIATE CIRCUMSTANCES

The same groups of respondents felt that school recreation sponsorship was in general *not* appropriate under the following circumstances:

1. Sponsorship should not be in large, medium-sized or metropolitan areas or cities (several cutoff figures are cited, 10,000 being the most frequent); in financially able communities, where the population is able to support, through taxes, a full separate program.

2. Sponsorship should not be where there are already existing recreation departments, or park systems that carry some recreation responsibility and might be expanded to do a more comprehensive job.

3. Sponsorship should not be in communities where the attitude of the board of education or superintendent of schools is not compatible with the task of providing an effective public recreation program.

The general tenor of the remarks made in response to these questions suggests that school-sponsored recreation tends to be a stopgap operation, carried on by default in communities that are not willing or do not see the need to provide adequate recreation services. This is particularly true of the comments of municipal recreation directors.

Program Capabilities of School Systems

Both groups of respondents viewed the schools as being most capable of providing adequate recreation services and programs in the following areas: (1) meeting the needs of school children and youth; (2) promoting sports, games, and athletic events; (3) teaching leisure skills and creative interests; and (4) offering sociocultural and creative activities, such as art, drama, music, and discussion forums.

They saw school recreation programs as weak in the following areas: (1) all outdoor sports or activities which demand special facilities, natural or aquatic areas (which might better be provided by park services); (2) activities for all age groups other than children and youth, particularly senior citizens, who need to be served during the day; and (3) a frequently heard comment—a fully diversified program of community recreation.

VIEWS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

One of the points that has been frequently mentioned thus far has been the view of recreation held by school superintendents or principals. School administrators obviously would be of key importance in carrying out school-sponsored recreation programs. These are the knowledgeable and influential individuals who are in a position to "make or break" any program of this type. True, the board of education plays an important role by transmitting the wishes of the community, helping to determine specific policies, and then lending support to such ventures. But it is the superintendent or principal who actually implements policy, who assigns individuals to specific duties, who makes decisions regarding the use of facilities, and who in a variety of other ways makes sure the program operates effectively.

Therefore, the author investigated the views of 345 superintendents or supervising principals, both in school systems that *did not*, and that *did* play major roles in recreation sponsorship. The following replies were received to this question: "*As a matter of principle, do you feel that the conduct and/or support of community recreation programs should be the responsibility of the public schools?*"

	NONSPONSORS (PER CENT)		SPONSORS (PER CENT)	
Yes	50	37.6	38	66.7
No	88	62.4	19	33.3

The response suggests that these school administrators are doing what they *believe* in; that the nonsponsors do not believe in the principle of sponsorship, and that the sponsors do. It also suggests that two-thirds of those who *are* sponsors feel that this is a satisfactory arrangement, but that one-third of them (a sizable fraction) feels that it is not a desirable arrangement.

In response to the next question, "*Do you feel that the schools are as well equipped to do this job as municipal recreation or park and recreation departments or commissions?*" there is again a variation between the two groups of administrators:

	NONSPONSORS (PER CENT)		SPONSORS (PER CENT)	
Yes	58	47.9	40	78.4
No	63	52.1	11	21.6

The nonsponsors are almost equally divided, indicating, however, a strong feeling that recreation services are specialized and that the schools are not equipped to carry them out. On the other hand, the sponsors feel strongly that the schools can do as good a job in recreation sponsorship as municipal recreation departments (which might be interpreted to mean that they do not really consider it to be a separate profession).

A final question which throws some light on this issue was "*As a corollary of the above, do you believe that recreation leadership and administration is a separate profession, which requires its own specialized training?*"

	NONSPONSORS (PER CENT)		SPONSORS (PER CENT)	
Yes	8	12.5	15	31.9
No	56	87.5	32	68.1

This would suggest an interesting paradox. Those who are not recreation sponsors tend strongly to view the field as one which does not really require special training. On the other hand, almost a third of the sponsors feels that it is. However, they are, as a group, ready to assume the responsibility. This would imply that, to do an adequate job, they should hire individuals who have been effectively trained in recreation to staff their programs. In the following chapter, we will see whether this is actually the case in school-sponsored programs.

To sum up the views of school superintendents regarding sponsorship of recreation programs, we find among the nonsponsors, who represent by far the majority of school administrators in the field today, a generally negative attitude regarding the responsibility of the school its ability to do an adequate job in the recreation field and of recreation as a separate profession. It must be made clear that a considerable number of school superintendents in both groups demonstrated an extremely high regard for recreation and felt that the school had a very important stake in its successful operation.

Present Extent of School-Sponsored Recreation

In conclusion, one last question remains to be asked.

The strong impression has been conveyed that school-spon-

sored recreation is on the upswing. Certainly, the national conferences that have been held recently have contributed to this view. Corbin's statement, quoted earlier in this chapter, supports it. The state directors of health, physical education, and recreation agree that it has either leveled off or is on the increase, in their states (Appendix F, item 101). Is this really the case? What are the facts regarding the incidence of school-sponsored recreation programs?

In 1926, the yearbook of the National Recreation Association indicated that, of 438 community recreation agencies reporting, 113 were described as conducted by boards of education or other school authorities. This represents a figure of 25.8 per cent.¹⁹

In 1931, Eugene Lies reported that 190 of a total of 994 programs were sponsored or co-sponsored by public school systems—a figure of 19.1 per cent.²⁰

In 1937, according to Hjelte, the figure was 179 out of 1,027 public recreation agencies, or 17.4 per cent.²¹

The most recently available figures, for 1960, indicate that the total number of separate local and county public recreation authorities in the country was 2,762. Of this, 247 were school authorities. This is just under 10 per cent.²²

In fact, then, we see that while the number of school-sponsored recreation programs has been rising steadily over the long haul, it has not been doing so in proportion to the over-all number of programs in the country. Certainly, it is not a movement which is threatening to take over the public recreation field in the United States today. However, it is still a form of administrative arrangement which must be viewed as being extremely important in view of (1) the large number of programs that *are* sponsored by the schools, including those in a number of major metropolitan areas; and (2) the unique nature of these programs.

The next chapters will carefully examine the characteristics of school-sponsored recreation programs, in an effort to determine their real strengths and weaknesses, and will describe a number of outstanding programs of this type.

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 18. John L. Hutchinson, *Principles of Recreation* (New York: Ronald, 1951), pp. 158-164; George D. Butler, *Introduction to Community Recreation* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959), 461-463; George Hjelte and Jay S. Shivers, *Public Administration of Park and Recreational Services* (New York: Macmillan, 1963), pp. 86-87.

THERE HAS BEEN much heat and comparatively little light shed on the actual nature of school-sponsored or co-sponsored recreation programs. In the eyes of many, they offer an ideal administrative arrangement for the provision of community recreational services. Others view them as extremely weak and feel there is little justification for them. Are the advantages of school-affiliated recreation (as cited in the previous chapter) real? What about the disadvantages that were listed? To what degree are they valid?

In his 1962 survey, the author sought the answers to these questions. He queried 220 recreation agencies which had been listed in the 1961 *Parks and Recreation Yearbook* as school-affiliated, or which were drawn in a few cases from other sources, such as the suggestions of recreation educators. The number of responses totaled 118 and fell into three broad categories:

1. *Sole Sponsor.* In this situation, the school provides the only public, tax-supported recreation program in the community or district. It is basically an independent operation, with the school board or superintendent of schools in full control. It may receive some support in terms of facilities or funds from other community agencies or departments, and there may be nonschool representation on a recreation advisory committee.

2. *Co-Sponsor.* Here the school assumes joint responsibility for a community recreation program, with one or more cooperating governmental agencies, such as a city, township, or village. The program is a single, unified operation, and the school board has a recognized share of responsibility for its control and direction.

3. *Side by Side.* Here the school provides a recreation program for which it is completely responsible, although it may receive some assistance or cooperation from other agencies. This program usually is designed to serve some special need within the community—either a specific age group, a category of activity, or a seasonal operation. At the same time, other recreation needs are being met by programs of other agencies, such as recreation departments or park commissions, on the local, county, or district level. There may or may not be a contractual agreement between the school and these other agencies which function side by side, but there is likely to be a degree of cooperation and mutual assistance.

Each of these types of programs will be illustrated by a number of brief references in this chapter, and by a more detailed analysis

of several major examples in Chapter Nine. After that, in Chapter Ten, there will be an analysis of cooperative practices, in which the school, although not a recreation sponsor, works with and assists municipal recreation programs.

Analysis of Programs

Examples of all three types of programs will be given, under the following six headings: (1) over-all description and administrative arrangements, (2) budgetary practices, (3) program scope and emphasis, (4) facilities, (5) leadership, and (6) status of program. It should be made clear that to separate budgetary practices from administration, or leadership from program, represents an arbitrary distinction; therefore, there will be some overlapping among each of these topics. All specific references made here are based on information submitted in 1962, and do not necessarily apply after that date, although the majority of these programs have been stable in structure and degree of support in recent years.

At certain points, the reader may ask, "How do the findings on school-sponsored programs compared with information gathered about municipally sponsored programs in the 1962 survey?"

The sampling procedures which were used to select the school districts or communities to be sent the questionnaires were not identical, nor were the surveys themselves. Therefore, no *scientific* comparisons may be made between the two groups. However, excluding the effect of certain minor stratifications made in determining the sample, they are believed to be fairly representative of school-sponsored and municipally sponsored programs throughout the country. Therefore, certain general comparisons are made between the two groups, always with the author's caution that these cannot be scientifically validated.

GENERAL DESCRIPTIONS AND ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS

At this point, the following aspects of school-sponsored or co-sponsored programs will be considered: geographical location,

size of community, length of time program has been in existence, type of administrative structure, and extent of community involvement in program.

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION. School-affiliated recreation programs tended to cluster in certain states and regions, namely the Great Lakes, the Middle Atlantic, and the Pacific Southwest districts. Those states which had the greatest number of such programs were California, New York, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Ohio, and Indiana. Clearly, this is influenced by (1) the existence of state legislation empowering school districts to provide recreation, and (2) the over-all level of organized community recreation, which varies from region to region around the country. No responses at all were received from the Mid-South district, and only three from the Southeast.

POPULATION OF RESPONDING COMMUNITIES. The population of the communities or school districts reporting had its heaviest incidence in the 10,000 to 24,999 bracket. This was true also of municipally sponsored programs. However, 21 per cent of the school-affiliated programs were in communities of less than 10,000 population, while this was true of only 9 per cent of the municipally sponsored programs. This tends to support the view, expressed by recreation educators and others, that school sponsorship is best suited to smaller communities, which are presumably less able to sponsor recreation as an independent municipal service.

LENGTH OF TIME IN EXISTENCE. In contrast to the widely held view that school recreation sponsorship is a recent development, it is interesting to note that the greatest number of programs, 37, had been in existence between ten and 19 years, and that the next highest total, 33, had been in existence for over 20 years. A fairly small number, 12 (11 per cent), had been instituted within the past five years. This would suggest that, while there was a heavy rise in the number of such programs during or shortly after World War II (along with the rapid increase of *all* community recreation in that period), there has certainly not been an abrupt rise recently.

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE. Those responsible for the programs identified themselves in this way: fully sponsored by a school

board or district, 66; jointly operated municipal-school recreation program, 40; separate municipal agency that receives support from school board, 8. The latter group of programs do not constitute meaningful examples of school sponsorship, and will not be analyzed as such in this chapter. Instead, the three types of arrangements mentioned in the beginning of this chapter will be illustrated briefly.

The following are examples of sole sponsorship:

1. *Port Townsend, Washington* (pop. 6,000). A full-time recreation director (who also has responsibility for adult education) works directly under the superintendent of schools and board of education to supply the complete recreation program for the community. The entire budget is supplied by the school board. There is no advisory recreation committee.

2. *Palos Verde Unified School District, Blythe, California* (pop. 16,000). Recreation director works under board of education, through superintendent of school, to supply school district recreation program. No other board or commission appointed.

3. *Compton, California* (pop. 200,000). The director of the department of recreation, health, and athletics conducts the community recreation program in the Union High School district, working in seven junior high schools and three senior high schools. He has equal status with junior high school principals. Entire budget comes from school recreation tax, plus fees and charges. There is no advisory recreation committee.

4. *Verona, New Jersey* (pop. 14,000). The director and assistant, the only two full-time employees, are responsible to the superintendent of schools, who reports to the board of education. They provide all community recreation services. All funds are supplied by the school board, and there is no recreation advisory committee.

5. *Hewlett, New York* (pop. 22,000). The director of recreation administers this department and is responsible to the superintendent of schools. Funds are secured through school budget. There is a citizen's committee on recreation, with P.T.A. representation.

6. *Plainview, Texas* (pop. 20,000). The community recreation department is offered through the physical education department in the secondary school and is administered as a part-time responsibility of the director of secondary instruction. The entire budget

comes from the school board, and there is no recreation advisory committee.

In a number of other communities or school districts, which tend to be somewhat smaller in population, the school provides the only organized recreation program, but relies heavily on the efforts of assisting civic groups or organizations:

1. *Roseau, Minnesota* (pop. 4,000). School involvement is relatively small. Community agencies provide most of the facilities and the cost. The school provides transportation for summer baseball teams sponsored and paid for by the American Legion. The school provides equipment, field, and lights for summer kittenball league play. Other agencies involved in recreation activities are the village, V.F.W., Lions Club, 4-H, churches, and American Legion Auxiliary. A community athletic council acts as an advisory group.

2. *Watertown, Connecticut* (pop. 15,000). A single school department of adult education and recreation provides these services for the community, under a school-appointed director. The adult education budget is paid for entirely by the school, and the community recreation program is financed 70 per cent by the town and 30 per cent by the United Fund. An addition, other free recreation services are provided on school grounds by a semi-private community agency, called the recreation council.

3. *Wayland, Michigan* (pop. 3,000). Program is sponsored by the school, with contributions from organizations such as the V.F.W., American Legion, Lions, and the village. There is no advisory recreation committee, although there are plans to develop one.

The following are examples of co-sponsorship:

1. *Coos Bay, Oregon* (pop. 30,000). Community recreation program is a joint effort by city and school. The school coordinator of health, physical education, and recreation has recreation as a part-time responsibility. Combined use is made of city and school facilities and maintenance carried on by both agencies. Director works immediately under superintendent of schools in conducting a program that is primarily summertime and strong on athletics. Budget is shared one-third each by the school district, city, and local business. There is no recreation advisory committee.

2. *Albany, New York* (pop. 135,000). The program is con-

ducted by a recreation director, appointed by the board of education and responsible to the superintendent of schools. The city park department maintains facilities, and provides 80 per cent of the budget for the program. There is no recreation advisory committee.

3. *Tacoma, Washington* (pop. 160,000). Under a joint sponsorship agreement the superintendent of public recreation is an employee of the school board and the park board. The school's contribution is chiefly in terms of paying part salaries of recreation specialists (about one-third of the total recreation budget) and providing consultation and the use of school facilities.

4. *East Lansing, Michigan* (pop. 30,000). The recreation director, working as an employee of the board of education, conducts a program jointly supported by the city of East Lansing, and the public school board. As director, he makes semiannual reports to joint meetings of both groups, and is responsible to the superintendent of schools and the city manager. An advisory group is the recreation committee of the city council.

5. *Donora, Pennsylvania* (pop. 12,000). The city and school district share costs equally; the school hires and pays personnel, while the municipality shares cost of supplies. Pennsylvania absorbs about one-half the cost of this program through salary reimbursement program. There is no formal advisory committee.

A number of other cities have an arrangement under which the city council pays the cost of a recreation program conducted by the schools; in effect, it contracts with them to carry out this function:

1. *Janesville, Wisconsin* (pop. 45,000). The recreation director for the board of education serves directly under the superintendent of schools, but under a board including city council representation. The city council supplies all school funds; thus, it supports the recreation program.

2. *Binghamton, New York* (pop. 75,000). The director of the school physical education department has a part-time responsibility for the conduct of municipal recreation activities. School facilities are used, and the budget is paid entirely by the general city tax. There is a five-member recreation commission. In addition, there is a large park department program in the city.

3. *Beloit, Wisconsin* (pop. 35,000). The recreation director,

an employee of the public schools, describes this administrative arrangement: "We have an advisory board of 21 to interpret the needs of the community. Our budget is presented by the advisory board. The school board then passes it and the City Council then votes the funds."

The following are examples of side-by-side sponsorship:

1. *Erie, Pennsylvania* (pop. 150,000). The school board and city recreation department run two separate programs. The school tends to concentrate on children and youth, and the recreation department on adult activities. They interchange use of facilities and cooperate in other ways but have separate budgets (school gets state reimbursement on salaries, and the city does not).

2. *Niagara Falls, New York* (pop. 105,000). Under the part-time supervision of the director of health and physical education in the school system, the board of education runs a program in one area of the city, for school-age youth. This is during the school year only, under joint financial sponsorship by the board of education and state Youth Commission. At the same time, a major, city-wide program is conducted by a municipal recreation department.

3. *Glendale, California* (pop. 100,000). Under the director of health and physical education, during the school year only, the schools conduct a recreation program, and the city a separate city-wide program. During the summer and holidays, the city and school board join together on an equal basis to present a joint recreation program.

4. *Whittier, California* (pop. 150,000). The schools operate 12 school playgrounds and cooperate with the city of Whittier Recreation Department, in carrying on community recreation. The school board acts as an advisory committee for school recreation.

5. *Everett, Washington* (pop. 49,000). There are two separate programs. The school director of health, physical education, and recreation administers the school budget for recreation, and joins with the superintendent of the city parks department to administer the city budget for recreation. This is a city-school recreation program. There is no school recreation advisory committee.

6. *Boston, Massachusetts* (pop. 670,000). The schools operate a combined department for adult education and recreation, using 13 school centers and 35 gymnasiums. Other city agencies

conduct city-wide park and recreation services for all age groups as a separate program. There is no school recreation advisory committee.

The programs described in the survey returns varied so widely that it was not possible to classify them all in one category or another, and then analyze them statistically. However, it is possible to say with a degree of certainty that (1) within the smallest communities that replied to this survey, the most common administrative pattern is to have the schools completely responsible for whatever tax-supported recreation program exists, sometimes with minor aid from the municipality or other voluntary agencies; (2) within medium-sized communities, jointly sponsored programs are frequently found—apparently, this is workable if the population is not too large and the administrative problems too great; (3) in very large communities, the common pattern is to have the school sponsor a separate recreation program, side by side with other community agencies—in some cases, they cooperate closely while, in others, there is very little communication.

In the majority of situations, the person responsible for recreation served directly under a superintendent of schools or a principal—or, in a number of cases, he was a school administrator himself. In response to the question *"Do you have a recreation advisory committee with representation from the community at large?"* the over-all, unqualified response was 60.4 per cent, "no," and 39.6 per cent "yes." This would suggest, on the basis of both points, that school recreation programs tend to be somewhat independent of community influence or advisement.

BUDGETARY PRACTICES

The budget tables for school-affiliated recreation programs suggest that a considerable number have minimal financial support (Appendix C, items 53—56).

The most frequently tallied interval was less than \$10,000, whereas in the municipally sponsored programs it was between \$10,000 and \$24,999. Another interesting point is that there are two peaks in the recreation budget table of expenditures (in the interval of 0—\$9,999, and again in the interval of \$50,000—\$99,999). This has no relation to the normal population curve or

the population curve of the school districts or communities responding. What it suggests is that a high proportion of these budgets are viewed frankly as "stop-gap." A number of them, budgeted at less than \$5,000, are intended apparently to support only six- or eight-week summer programs for youth. On the other hand, in several Great Lakes states and California in particular, there are a number of extremely well-financed programs. These account for the second peak of expenditure.

SOURCE OF REVENUE. The school board supplies the entire recreation budget (excluding income from fees or charges) to 58 of 114 programs—about 50 per cent. It supplies over half the budget in 72 per cent of the communities or school districts. Here are some examples of fairly typical arrangements in communities where the school board pays the entire tax:

1. *Oshkosh, Wisconsin* (pop. 48,000) has a recreation budget of \$81,803, all derived directly from the school board and based on a special mill levy of .062 per \$100. The recreation budget is separate from the education budget.

2. *Abington Township, Pennsylvania* (pop. 60,000) has a budget of \$14,000, with which it supports a summer program for school-age youth. Funds are drawn completely from the school board.

3. *Santa Monica, California* (pop. 80,000) has a recreation budget of \$68,000, serving chiefly school-age youth. Funds are drawn entirely from school sources, based on the special tax (Education Code 20801, California).

4. *Plymouth, Michigan* (pop. 1,800) has adult education and recreation within a single department, with an annual budget of \$47,000 that is financed entirely by the school and based on a .5 mill tax rate.

In other situations, where funds are drawn from a variety of sources, there are these examples:

1. *South St. Paul, Minnesota* (pop. 22,000) has a park and recreation budget of \$95,000. The program is jointly sponsored by the school and the city, under the direction of the superintendent of schools. The school board pays 20 per cent of the budget; the municipality the rest.

2. *Watertown, Connecticut* (15,000) finances its adult edu-

cation program (linked administratively to recreation) through school funds and state aid; its school recreation budget of \$13,970 is paid 70 per cent by the municipality and 30 per cent by the United Fund.

3. *Milpitas, California* (pop. 7,000) has an annual budget of \$27,000 drawn from the "5 cents override tax." The school district and the city share equally costs for the recreation program for children K—8, and the city supports all other age groups.

4. *Barberton, Ohio* (pop. 35,000). The city gives \$1,500, the United Fund supplies \$1,500, and the school board gives the rest (approximately \$5,000).

5. *Winter Garden, Florida* (pop. 8,000). The Orange County Board of Public Instruction pays the salaries of six recreation leaders and maintains two special areas; the city of Winter Garden supplies \$4,500 for other salaries and expenses.

It is quite apparent, based on the over-all budget tables and a number of the examples which have just been cited, that there is a great range of per capita expenditure among the school-sponsored programs, and that some of the budgets are quite low. Two factors that influence this should be cited: (1) usually school boards, in presenting their recreation budgets, do not itemize capital expenses (these are absorbed as normal school costs, since they are used for other purposes); whereas recreation and park departments customarily list these expenses as part of their annual budgets. This is one factor accounting for the lower budgets of school recreation programs. (2) Many of the school programs frankly serve only a portion of the community or a special area of service, and co-exist with other municipal agencies which also absorb a major portion of expense. In such cases, the school budgets represent only a portion of the total community expense for recreation.

Since the charge is frequently heard that under school sponsorship, recreation budget items are expendable, the question was asked (Appendix C, item 56): "*If the recreation budget is a regular part of the school budget, has it provoked special criticism or opposition at the time of budget hearings or public vote?*" The "yes" response was only ten (about 9.6 per cent of those who gave a definite reply). The "no" response was 94 (90.4 per cent of those who replied definitely).

Only one specific example was given of the recreation item being cut out of a budget, although there were a number of oblique references to this happening, or to friction between the school board and city. The recreation director in Janesville, Wisconsin, reports such friction and writes, "Our budget has gone up about 2 per cent; the education budget has about doubled." A Long Island, New York, community reports, "Because of high expenditures in other areas, our budget has remained constant." One respondent included a clipping from a New Jersey newspaper describing an effort to shift the recreation expenditure from the school board to the city council, and another in which a community canceled its six-week summer recreation program at a saving of \$1,500. In the spring of 1963, when a considerable number of education budgets and bond issues were defeated in the New York metropolitan area, recreation programs, along with school services relating to transportation, school lunch programs, and guidance, were defeated.

On the other hand, this did not seem to have been the experience of the majority who replied. The following were specific comments on this point:

Small but vocal groups frequently [urge that we] reduce taxes, but more people favor the broad program of education, some quite vigorously, most passively. [Lawrence, Kansas]

No problem. We would be criticized if we dropped it. [Deer Lodge, Montana]

A majority of those who responded to the question indicated that their recreation budgets had recently risen in proportion to the over-all school budget, although the author indicates in Appendix C (item 57) some doubt whether this point was correctly understood and responded to. In any event, only 9.6 per cent replied that their budgets had declined, as compared with 55.2 per cent who stated that it had risen. Certainly this is on the "up" side and indicates no widespread budget-slashing at a time of financial pressure.

PROGRAM SCOPE AND EMPHASIS

A frequent claim which is made by opponents of school-sponsored recreation is that it tends to serve chiefly the normal

clientele of the school—children and youth. This is supported by the response to the question, "Is your program primarily for school-age youth?"

		(PER CENT)
Yes	92	79.3
No	24	20.7

In response to the next question, "If you offer adult activities, about what proportion of the program is for this level?" only 68 programs replied. Of these, 57 (83.8 per cent) geared less than 40 per cent of their program for adults. Again, this supports the common picture. It should be pointed out in explanation that a number of these programs are operated under joint sponsorship, or side-by-side arrangements where there is the understanding that the schools will conduct programs primarily for children and youth, while other agencies will serve more diversified age needs.

On a similar point, 43 of 104 (41.3 per cent) responded "yes" to the question "Is your program completely or primarily summertime?" In a large number of cases, the annual reports that were submitted showed that the program was only for six or eight weeks of summer vacation.

This again would support the popular view of school-sponsored recreation, although it would also be true of a certain number of municipally sponsored recreation programs (this question was not asked of these directors). This is certainly affected by regional climate, which may limit outdoor recreational activities in particular. In the Great Lakes region, 47.7 per cent of the responding school-sponsored programs indicated that they were completely or primarily summertime, whereas in the Pacific Southwest region, where year-round outdoor recreation is practical, only 5.8 per cent indicated this.

Information regarding actual content of program was not specifically requested in the survey, although many school recreation directors sent copies of their annual reports or seasonal activity schedules. On the basis of these, without a formal tabulation, it would appear that the activities, both in kind and in proportion, are quite similar to those offered by sponsored municipal recreation departments. The broad areas of games, sports, dancing, art, music, hobby activities, club programs, and so on—all are present in both. Obviously, activities requiring extensive land or

natural areas (golf courses, tennis courts, pools or beach areas, picnic sites) are not sponsored by school programs to the same degree as they are by recreation, or park and recreation departments. Some schools do have these facilities to a degree, and others comment that they cooperate with municipal or county agencies that make them available.

A number of questions were asked in Survey C in an attempt to discover whether school-sponsored programs were able to establish meaningful ties with the more formal curricular program of the school. It has been cited as one of the advantages of school sponsorship that it implements leisure education by giving curricular activities direct expression in recreational participation. These questions, and the summary of responses to them, follow:

"Do you, either as a teacher or special resource person, work with groups of students or classes in providing recreation activities during the school day?"

	(PER CENT)	
Yes	28	28
No	72	72

Only a few meaningful responses were given of this type of involvement, including those which involved physical education teaching.

"Does your program provide activities, such as field trips, school camping, or other special events, that are related to the curriculum?"

	(PER CENT)	
Yes	42	39.6
No	64	61.4

This is a somewhat more affirmative response; a number of specific illustrations were given, chiefly in the area of outdoor education and field trips. Interestingly, *only* from the Pacific Southwest region was there a positive response to both questions.

Two questions (Appendix C, items 62, 63) also sought to find the relationship between adult education and adult recreation. While a number of communities or districts had the two linked together within a single department, the more common tendency was to view them as separate operations, with differing purposes and outcomes. On this point, it would appear that having recreation centered within the school provides no unique advantage, other

than administrative feasibility, in offering instructional classes in recreational skills that are in some cases labeled as adult education. In many states and communities, the line is very hazily drawn. For example, a fairly typical annual report of subject enrollments in adult education classes in 1958, issued by the New Jersey State Department of Education, includes the following: dancing, bridge, sewing, golf, small-boat handling, dog obedience, sketching, guitar, and flower arrangement. When distinctions are made between recreational and educational activities (as in a number of states that have withdrawn financial support from adult recreation classes), they are often quite illogical and inconsistent.

Another important area of investigation had to do with the extent to which school-affiliated programs had community ties. To what extent did they cooperate with other community agencies, take part in programs of professional interest within the recreation field, and make their services or facilities available for outside use? A widely held impression is that they tend *not* to do this sufficiently, and are quite withdrawn from the community. The reply to the question, "*Do you cooperate with other community agencies (social service, Y's, and so on) in providing joint recreation services?*" was

		(PER CENT)
Yes	78	69.6
No	34	30.4

The following specific examples were given:

We have special classes for the handicapped, also work with the county nurse and child health clinic. . . . [*Needles, California*]

[There are] Kiwanis Bike Parade, kite contest, Uptown Merchants' Hallowe'en Parade; Y's sponsor fitness and tournaments through school playgrounds. [*Whittier, California*]

We have a cooperative program with many, many community agencies: Boy and Girl Scouts, library, service clubs, private schools, etc. [*Watertown, Connecticut*]

[There are] clinics, in-service training conferences, etc. [*Chicago, Illinois*]

[We have] Jaycee and Optimist teen dances, Optimist Bicycle Rodeo, Jaycee car driving rodeo, Kiwanis field day (youth fitness) and several co-sponsored athletic teams—V.F.W. hockey, etc. [*Plymouth, Michigan*]

[We] cooperate with Boy's Clubs, YMCA, YWCA, churches, etc. [*Binghamton, New York*]

Co-sponsor track meets; leadership institutes; seminars on leisure time problems. [Hewlett, New York]

While no comparative figures are available, school recreation programs tend to be somewhat more isolated or independent in the community than municipal recreation executives who, for the most part, make an intensive effort to reach and involve civic groups, service clubs, and other social agencies. However, as the above examples indicate, this is by no means the case in all such programs; school sponsorship does not preclude such involvement.

FACILITIES

The use of school facilities is frequently cited as a major problem by municipal recreation administrators. In Appendix B (item 29), 232 of the 240 municipal administrators who responded to that survey indicated that they made use of at least one school facility. While 112 municipal recreation directors indicates that they had no serious problems with respect of obtaining the use of school facilities, 140 other separate references were made to specific problems faced, such as (1) scheduling difficulties, time limitations, and cancellations; (2) problems of supervision, vandalism, and maintenance; (3) lack of cooperation from school administrators or custodians; and (4) excessively high charges.

Among school-affiliated recreation programs only five of 113 (4.4 per cent) who responded on this point definitely had difficulty in obtaining the use of school facilities. The majority of these recreation directors indicate that they have no problem at all because school personnel are in charge, recreation is placed in a priority directly behind actual class use, and in many cases they are the individuals who assign facilities. This is obviously a major advantage of school-sponsored recreation programs, and not to be minimized. A similar advantage lies in their response to the following question, "*If new school facilities have been built, have you or other recreation specialists been drawn into the planning?*"

	(PER CENT)	
Yes	72	69.2
No	27	25.9
Qualified	5	4.9

Specific examples of such consultation procedures, which serve, of course, to make new facilities as appropriate as possible for recreation purposes, will be cited in the next two chapters.

With respect to the point of whether school-sponsored recreation programs make use of outside facilities or areas (Appendix C, item 72), 64 respondents indicated that they used facilities or areas owned by other governmental agencies; 37 made use of such buildings as churches, "Y's," and community centers; and 32 made use of facilities owned by private or commercial interests.

Similarly, of 112 who responded (Appendix C, item 73), 82.1 per cent indicated that recreation groups that were not sponsored by the schools were able to make use of school facilities through *their* assistance or coordination. Many examples are cited.

In general, the ready availability of facilities is a very strong point in the favor of school recreation sponsorship. One major weakness lies in the unavailability of appropriate space or rooms for groups that would normally meet during the day, such as Golden Age clubs. While 41 of 54 school recreation administrators who replied (75.8 per cent) indicated that they found no difficulty in this matter, this appeared to be, in many cases, because they did not attempt to offer this kind of program service. Thirty-three respondents indicated that they either had their own facilities available for such groups, or that they made use of other facilities in the community.

LEADERSHIP

A major factor in the quality of any recreation program is, of course, the nature of its leadership. A number of questions (Appendix C, items 75—84) related to (1) the extent of full-time and part-time leadership, (2) the training and experience of leaders, and (3) the use of teachers as leaders. In response to the initial question, "*Is yours a full-time recreation responsibility?*" the reply was

		(PER CENT)
Yes	32	28
No	82	72

In an effort to find out the extent to which other responsibilities made demands on the time of the individual who was in charge of the school-affiliated recreation program, the question was asked, "*If not, what proportion of your time is given to recreation?*" A very considerable proportion gave less than 60 per cent of their

time to recreation administration. Specifically, 22 indicated that their duties involved only summertime responsibility. To illustrate this point graphically, a number of examples are cited:

COMMUNITY	POPULATION	RECREATION BUDGET	PERCENTAGE OF TIME DEVOTED BY OFFICIAL IN CHARGE TO RECREATION RESPONSIBILITY
		(DOLLARS)	(PER CENT)
Boston, Massachusetts	670,000	179,500	50
Donora, Pennsylvania	12,000	12,000	10
Binghamton, New York	75,000	51,000	about 25
Erie, Pennsylvania	150,000	200,000	25
Santa Monica, California	80,000	68,000	25
Logan, Utah	18,000	15,000	25
Madison, Wisconsin	126,000	270,000	50
San Francisco, California	750,000	210,590	33.3

On the face of it, some of these illustrations would appear to be unbelievable. When the author cited similar examples at a professional recreation meeting of full-time professional recreation executives who administered smaller programs than most of those listed above, there was an outraged snicker of incredulity. The answer, of course, is that a number of these programs are part-time or seasonal, and are directed by a teacher or school administrator who has recreation only as one of his responsibilities during the school year (although it may become full-time in summer).

In some instances, although the person in charge of the program is not full-time with respect to recreation, he has assistants who are. Thus, in Madison, Wisconsin, there are 11 full-time, year-round recreation supervisors or specialists. In San Francisco, there are two. In Boston, none was listed.

Clearly, the fact that the administrator of the program does not have recreation as his major or sole concern does not necessarily make his program an inferior one. Some of the programs listed above appear to be excellent, based on program details submitted. The basic question, however, and it is based on an important principle, is whether a major public service involving large sums of money does not deserve to have a professionally qualified person in charge who can give his full attention to its most effective direction and administration.

When asked what other responsibilities they had, a high proportion of those responding indicated that teaching and coaching or serving as chairman of the health and physical education de-

partment was their full-time assignment. In a number of cases, it was the school principal or superintendent of schools who was in charge of the recreation program; clearly, this could *not* be viewed as a major task when placed next to his other pressing responsibilities.

When asked about their training or professional experience in the recreation field, the replies of school recreation directors heavily emphasized physical education training and teaching experience with many references to practical recreation leadership experience. A total of 33 respondents mentioned specifically having taken courses in recreation, but it could not be determined how many of these received a major or minor in this field, or just took a required course or two. It is assumed that all individuals, as school teachers or administrators, were college graduates, usually with degrees in some form of education.

Survey B did not gather information about the professional background of municipal recreation directors; therefore, no comparison may be made between these two groups. An interesting comparison is possible, however, with respect to numbers of full-time and part-time personnel, when one examines the tables preceding item 22, Appendix B, and compares them with items 80 and 81 in Appendix C. Recognizing that the municipally sponsored programs are in communities with larger populations and higher recreation budgets on the average, the disparity is still striking. An extremely high proportion of the school programs have *no* full-time leadership year-round, at all.

A number of other questions relate to the training of leaders, and to the qualifications of school teachers to serve as recreation leaders without additional training. In general, school recreation executives indicate that they make frequent use of school teachers, that they feel they are in a closely linked discipline, and that they need in-service training, as all leaders do. Realistically, so many community recreation programs also make use of school teachers as part-time leaders because of their seasonal availability and related skills that this does not appear to be a significant point of difference between the two types of groups.

STATUS OF PROGRAMS

A criticism that is frequently made is that recreation when sponsored by the schools becomes a secondary concern, or minor

responsibility, rather than a *major* community service. School sponsors were asked to comment on the accuracy of this with respect to their own situations. They replied (Survey C, item 85):

	(PER CENT)	
Yes	31	31
No	50	50
Qualified	19	19

Although the majority thus support the status of their own programs, a fairly substantial group indicate that they are not sufficiently supported, or that recreation is not regarded as of major importance. In a number of cases, respondents simply restated the pro's and con's of school-supported recreation, as discussed earlier. In other cases, they were quite frank about their own situations. Since a number of these comments are rather personal, they are identified only by state:

In my case, recreation is considered secondary only in that it represents the individual's secondary means of income and secondary interest. Professional direction, however, fortifies its importance. Our recreation program is designed to complement our education program wherever possible. [*New York*]

Our programs are very well received because despite the limited monies and part-time staff our personnel is selected carefully. Our philosophy is one that looks at recreation as part of the continuing educational process [*New York*]

Because of facilities including auditoriums, gymnasiums, outdoor facilities, swim pools and trained personnel, *no other agency* can provide community recreational opportunities equal to that of the schools. However, Boards of Education, Superintendents, and the general tax-paying public *must* be aware of this and realize this potential. Knowing, realizing and accepting their community responsibility, recreation properly sponsored by the schools *can* have no equal. . . . [*California*]

This feeling exists somewhat, unfortunately. [*California*]

Such criticism is illogical because the school should do the best job because they have the personnel, facilities and the youngsters. We have been conducting school recreation for 32 years—need I say more? However, I find that not all of our principals are aware that recreation is just as important in education as *formal training*. The book-worm type! [*California*]

Community acceptance is tremendous. [*California*]

I believe this is somewhat true. It is not regarded as education. It is secondary to the educational task, although it is provided a good budget by the schools. [*Colorado*]

Not true here. Our community considers this program of great importance. [*Connecticut*]

This is true in some cases, but our program is a major operation. [*Florida*]

Not valid. Members of the board of education continue to favor the expansion of this program. [*Illinois*]

Yes, this can happen if the director will not assert himself or, better, command respect through the quality of the program he presents. I'm afraid our program is still viewed as secondary; we are making converts of many but must stay at it constantly. I believe that a park-school program can offer greater variety in better facilities at a much more economical figure than could either one acting separately. [*Indiana*]

I agree, but it is better to exist second-class than to have no recreation program at all. [*Iowa*]

Many respondents were frankly critical of their own programs, but justified what they were doing in terms of the limited support they were given by the community or board of education. Others retorted rather spiritedly that theirs was a "first-class" program and had full community support. A point stressed by a number of respondents is that it is necessary to win and to justify support and status by doing a top-notch professional job and by keeping it up constantly. Although a number of respondents commented that their programs needed expansion and larger budgets, only a very few indicated that they felt it would be better off in the hands of the municipality.

In summing up the points that have been covered in this chapter, it indicated that school-affiliated recreation programs tend to be in somewhat smaller communities and to have somewhat lower budgets than municipally sponsored programs. While scattered around the country, they tend to appear heavily in certain regions, and to be almost nonexistent in others. Many of them came into existence in the years shortly after World War II; the trend does not appear to be moving ahead rapidly today.

Administrative organization is of three types: (1) one is sponsored solely by the schools (conducting the only recreation program in the community); (2) one is formally co-sponsored by the school and one or more municipal agencies; or (3) one is a school program operating side by side with other programs, assuming only a portion of the total responsibility. The responsible official is usually the superintendent of schools or principal; in some cases, he conducts the program himself, and in many others, the head of

a department of health, physical education, and recreation is in direct charge.

A variety of budgetary practices are cited. It appears that, by and large, school recreation budget items are not as vulnerable as believed; few instances of programs being cut are given. The program definitely is geared for children and youth in the majority of cases, and is heavily summertime as well. Only a small number of school recreation programs are related meaningfully with the curriculum, although a number of special services are provided to schools. School recreation programs do seem to cooperate effectively with community agencies, and to make reciprocal use of facilities. School personnel, in general, have easy access to facilities, and a large voice in the planning of new buildings and areas.

Leadership practices tend to be one of the weakest aspects of school-connected recreation; there is a high incidence of programs without full-time leadership or direction, with the implication that recreation is viewed as somebody's part-time job. There were varying views regarding the self-image or status of these programs. While the majority of these were favorable, a considerable number felt that their programs were not highly enough regarded or adequately supported.

The following chapter will provide more detailed descriptions of several particularly interesting school-affiliated recreation programs.

References

1. *Twentieth Century Recreation: Re-Engagement of School and Community*, Report of the Second National Conference on School Recreation, November 7-9, 1962 (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1963), p. 42.

Examples of Effective School Recreation Sponsorship

PRINCIPLE: Where community recreation programs do not exist in sufficient breadth or scope to meet the needs of all the people, the school should take the initiative in providing such programs for both young and old.

PRINCIPLE: The school has a responsibility to cooperate with community agencies which conduct programs of recreation or which are interested in the conduct of such programs.¹

REPORT OF THE SECOND NATIONAL
CONFERENCE ON SCHOOL RECREATION

THIS CHAPTER EXAMINES in detail seven school-affiliated recreation programs which illustrate the categories described in Chapter Eight: (1) the school is solely responsible for the only tax-supported program of recreation in the community or school district; (2) the school jointly sponsors a program with another agency of government; and (3) the school sponsors a recreation program as part of a total community effort, in which other governmental agencies also provide recreation services.

Each of the programs described here is in some way different from the others, in terms of administrative procedures, objectives, or program emphasis. They are in two population groupings: (1) small to medium-sized communities, ranging from 8,000 to 50,000; and (2) large communities, ranging from 200,000 to 2,500,000. Five states are represented: New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Wisconsin, and California. The information presented here was drawn from the replies of school recreation directors and supervisors to Survey C, and from other annual reports and correspondence in 1962 and 1963.

The programs are presented in order of increasing size.

Plymouth, Michigan

Plymouth, Michigan, is a community of approximately 8,000 residents. It has a department of recreation and adult education which is fully sponsored by the school board, operating under a full-time director who is under the supervision of the superintendent of schools. An eight-member recreation and adult education commission, representing the city of Plymouth, the board of education, and three townships involved in the program, is extremely active in determining policy.

The Plymouth Department of Recreation and Adult Education, in existence since 1950, has an annual budget of approximately \$47,000. About 52 per cent of this is derived from fees and charges, particularly from adult education classes which thus serve to help in the support of youth recreation activities. The remaining sum is derived from a special school recreation tax. The program is about 75 per cent for children and 25 per cent for adults. As an example of its growth, the following table demon-

strates in condensed form the adult education program during its first ten years of existence:

	<i>1950-1951</i>	<i>1954-1955</i>	<i>1959-1960</i>
Number of classes	22	52	82
Enrollment	483	953	1,784
Total attendance hours	10,148	18,487	44,843
Expenditures	\$951.93	\$7,970.91	\$14,485.74

The close integration of adult education and adult recreation activities is one of the features of the Plymouth program. No distinction is made between the two, and a wide variety of classes are offered, including the following in community chorus, men's gym, oil painting, sewing, upholstering, great books, philosophy, Spanish, bridge, square dance, economics and international affairs, investments, social studies, and bowling. Obviously, a number of these are extremely academic or intellectual in nature, while others are clearly diversional.

The offering for youth includes a considerable number of athletic and game activities: touch football, hockey, ice skating, basketball, swimming, Little League and other sports. It also includes arts and crafts, language classes, vocal music, dramatics, baton twirling, and a variety of social activities and outdoor interests. In the summertime, a number of courses for youth are offered which supplement or extend the regular curriculum: fine arts, typing, shop, arithmetic, reading, and driver education.

In terms of leadership, the full-time director has the assistance of about 80 part-time leaders, many of them school teachers. Under supervision and with in-service training, they are believed to operate successfully in this program. The recreation director assists in the planning of school camping for the sixth grade, although he is not otherwise involved in curricular activities. There is no difficulty with respect to using school facilities; these are all freely available for adult education and recreation after the regular school program is ended. The director has also been active in the planning of new school facilities, to insure their suitability for recreation use.

The Plymouth program reflects extensive cooperation with community agencies and service organizations. For example, dances and banquets are held at facilities belonging to the V.F.W. and Junior Chamber of Commerce. Church basements and the

public library have been used for classes and meetings. The Wayne County Training School has provided use of its pool, gymnasium, athletic field, ice rink, classrooms, and instructors. The city's department of public works has offered equipment and some assistance for ice-making for skating and hockey, and a building for year-round rifle, pistol, and archery practice. Public golf courses have been made available for youth instruction and league golf programs, almost free of charge, and public bowling alleys have been used by the school recreation department at considerably reduced rates. The Wayne County Parks have made available many other facilities: lighted horseshoe courts, baseball and softball diamonds, tennis courts, picnic tables, lighted toboggan runs and ski areas, shelters, and four well-maintained ice ponds or lakes, including warming rooms, refreshment bars, and rest rooms.

Reciprocally, nonschool organizations, such as the V.F.W., the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the Scouts, service clubs, music groups, and industrial groups, are permitted to use school facilities for minimal charges. The charge for the auditorium, for example, is \$10.00 per session plus a custodial charge of \$2.50 per hour.

Operating this extensive program on a somewhat limited budget has meant that there have been financial limitations from time to time. Classes for children or adults that have not drawn sufficient enrollments have been cancelled, and teachers in the adult education program have been paid fees lower than those prevailing in surrounding communities. However, by and large, the Plymouth program illustrates a resourceful combination of the functions of adult education and recreation under a single administrative head, plus excellent reciprocal community relationships. As a consequence, and with the assistance of facilities made available by other community agencies, municipal, or county departments, Plymouth has a diversified and successful community recreation program.

Hewlett, New York

On the south shore of New York's Long Island, Nassau County's School District No. 14 comprises the two residential communities of Woodmere and Hewlett. Since 1952, this school district

of 22,000 population has sponsored a community recreation program, chiefly for children and youth, but with services for some adult and special groups. The full-time director of this program devotes his time almost completely to recreation, with some additional responsibilities (scheduling of school facilities, and assisting students in making out working papers). The program operates under a citizen's committee on education and recreation, with representation from local P.T.A.'s.

In certain ways, the Hewlett program is in strong contrast to the Plymouth recreation offering. Perhaps the greatest difference is in the community itself. In the words of the director:

The Woodmere-Hewlett district . . . typifies many of the new suburban areas in that it lacks a single public park, ball field or playground aside from school facilities. The last remaining segment of what was once a choice wooded preserve and campsite is even now being churned up by home builders. We've no county, town, or village recreation program in our immediate area; we've no picnic grounds; and the traffic on streets that were once pastoral is already too heavy to make stickball or similar street games safe.²

Within this environment, the schools themselves have become the focus of recreational activity. Six schools (a high school, a junior high, and four elementary schools) are all used for after-school and evening programs. The emphasis is somewhat less heavy on sports and outdoor activities than in Plymouth. While a number of athletic and game activities are offered, there is also a strong emphasis on creative activities: art, drama, jazz groups, string ensembles, metalcraft and the like. Informal hobby and casual "drop-in" activities are also offered: shuffleboard, kite flying events, roller skating programs, table games, "nok hockey," ping pong, and similar activities that are not scheduled as classes or, in some cases, even as organized groups.

Unlike the situation in Plymouth, comparatively little use of nonschool facilities—public or private—has been made in Hewlett. For the most part, they are not available. Instead, the school board has been fortunate in being able to convert a large stable on the property which was purchased to build the high school, into an extremely useful recreation building. This is kept open as a social hall six days and two evenings a week and during vacation periods. High school students in particular meet there after classes

or in the evenings, to play pool or ping pong, to dance to records, to sip soft drinks, and buy ice cream from vending machines. Throughout, there is a casual, "drop-in" atmosphere. After-game parties and social sessions are held at the recreation building to discourage teen-agers from driving out of the district after sports events are over. Unlike many school-sponsored recreation programs, this has managed to meet the needs and interests of teen-agers.

During the day, adult classes are held primarily for mothers, in such home-centered recreational interests as flower arranging, cooking, art, and sewing. Also, during the day, senior citizens meet in the recreation building, and a weekly-meeting teen-age group of retarded children has been established which uses the building as a headquarters.

While there is much less involvement with community agencies than in Plymouth, over 100 nonprofit community groups have been able to use the facilities of the Hewlett-Woodmere schools, reserving space through the school recreation director. In some cases, he has been able to provide such groups with facilities and integrate them into the master recreation schedule, thus making it unnecessary for the school itself to sponsor recreational activities in certain activities. For example, an organization called the Five Towns Music and Art Foundation has been brought in to conduct dance and ballet classes. Church, temple, and "Y" groups sponsor teen-age basketball leagues in the schools; therefore, the director does not plan these himself.

The budget for this program is about \$42,000, drawn completely from the school board, without any special taxing power assigned for recreation purposes. Practically no income is drawn from activities, other than minor amounts from dance admissions. The program has been favorably regarded and consequently well-supported by taxpayers in the school district, and by school administrators, who consider it essential. This is in unfortunate contrast to a number of surrounding communities which do not provide adequate recreation programs. The Hewlett director comments that, in much of Nassau County, recreation is viewed as secondary or unimportant, rather than as a major community need. About other school districts, he writes: "Schools are *not* mandated by law to conduct recreation programs; education is their responsibility, and until such time that they recognize the need for educated use

of leisure, recreation will continue to be considered a frill, a public relations gimmick, and a most dispensable item."

As a consequence, when students from surrounding communities that did not have adequate recreation programs started attending Hewlett programs, it became necessary to bar them, because of limited facilities. On one occasion, a group of teen-agers who were thus barred from a Saturday night social drove off, had a few drinks, and, at about midnight, crashed into a telephone pole. Hewlett's school-recreation program is designed to prevent this from happening to its own teen-agers.

Ferndale, Michigan

With a population of 34,000, Ferndale, Michigan, represents a somewhat larger community recreation program than either of those cited earlier. It is jointly sponsored by the city of Ferndale and the school district, with an annual budget of approximately \$55,000, of which 57 per cent comes from the school board and 43 per cent from the municipal government.

The full-time recreation director is an employee of both the superintendent of schools and the city manager, and operates under a recreation advisory committee consisting of the city manager, superintendent of schools, one member each of the city commission and board of education, and six citizens at large. This commission serves as a liaison between the city government and the school board. Its responsibilities include conducting necessary studies and surveys to insure the soundness of the recreation program, recommending adequate proportional support by both agencies, acting generally in an advisory capacity to the recreation program, and developing a program for interpreting it to the public.

Working with one other full-time, year-round recreation assistant, the director of the Ferndale program has developed a varied program of activities for all ages, in the ratio of about two-thirds for children and youth, and one-third for adults. In general, the activities offered cover the range of typical recreational interests, with a strong emphasis on athletic and physical recreation pursuits. They are scheduled in an indoor season (October to April) of two 12-week terms; activities are not held in school buildings

during vacation periods or holidays. In addition, there is an eight-weeks' summer playground program.

YOUTH ACTIVITIES

These include the following: grade school and high school evening gymnasium classes for boys and girls; Saturday morning basketball sessions for fifth- to eighth-graders; junior bowling leagues for eighth-graders and up; a junior rifle club for seventh- and eighth-graders; creative dance classes for boys and girls in the elementary and junior high school grades; baton twirling classes for high school girls; junior baseball submidget, midget, and "F" leagues (sponsored by local businesses); high school basketball leagues and hockey and ice skating programs. A number of city-wide programs and special events, such as Hallowe'en parties, are held at appropriate seasons, with the help of the Exchange Club, Rotary Club, Kiwanis, and other civic groups.

During the summer playground season, activities include softball, kickball, handicrafts, active and quiet games, picnics, swimming instruction and participation, and synchronized swimming, competition, and exhibitions. There is an active summer band program, with over 300 children meeting for eight weeks. As in Hewlett, there is a specially organized recreation group for retarded children. Teen-age outdoor dances are held during the summer.

Certain activities are geared to provide recreation services both for youth and adults, in such areas as tennis instruction, life saving, and water-safety. Others are strictly for adults.

ADULT ACTIVITIES

Unlike the Plymouth program, there is no linkage between adult education and recreation. The adult education courses are offered separately by the school, although there is joint planning to avoid duplication of activities. Adult recreational activities include a senior rifle and pistol club; square dance instruction, clubs, parties, and "round-ups;" social dance classes for adults; women's and men's gymnasium and swimming classes; golf and badminton instruction; umpiring classes; and church and recreation-sponsored adult softball leagues. All adult classes have maximum and mini-

mun enrollment limits and customarily operate with low registration fees.

Since the program is heavily based on sports and games, facilities of this type are essential. Ferndale has therefore developed a wide range of useful facilities and areas, including a number of so-called "Magic Squares." These are outdoor hard-surface areas, either 120 feet by 120 feet, or 120 feet by 60 feet. They can be used for tennis, basketball, shuffleboard, volleyball, badminton, or outdoor dancing, among other activities. Over \$40,000 has been raised to build and equip them, through public solicitation and the contributions of clubs, civic organizations, and industries. Between them, the school district and city operate 15 ball diamonds, two campfire rings in parks, ten gymnasiums, 15 horse-shoe courts in five parks, eight ice skating rinks, six "Magic Squares," ten tennis courts (two of them lighted); 11 parks, three indoor pools in the schools, and one rifle range.

While there is no special difficulty in obtaining the use of school indoor or outdoor facilities (specific days and hours are scheduled for recreation, which has a priority for after-school use), the recreation director has *not* been drawn into the planning of school facilities. Nor are indoor school facilities used during vacation periods or when school is not in session. There is no other recreation building owned by the school which is made available for *daytime use for special groups, and the facilities of nonschool public or private agencies are not used*. Unlike the situation in the two communities in which the school is sole sponsor, it would appear that, in the co-sponsorship arrangement, there may be a *limitation on the use of indoor school facilities for programing and a greater reliance on municipally owned facilities*. This, in turn, affects the breadth of program offered.

A brief description of the Ferndale recreation program's history is interesting as an example of school-community recreation development.

In 1926, the Ferndale Board of Education first hired a high school athletic director who was assigned the task of developing a community-wide, year-round recreation program. During the summer, this individual was loaned to other cities in Royal Oak Township to supervise summer recreation programs. During the first years of the Depression of the early 1930's, this program was curtailed, because of more pressing community needs. It was

revived intermittently in the years following, with assistance from the Ferndale P.T.A., the municipal government, and the board of education.

In the later Depression years, recreation programs were offered by the Ferndale Emergency Relief Administration, the National Youth Administration, and the Works Progress Administration. Once again, in 1937, a group of citizens appealed to the city commission to establish a permanent and comprehensive community recreation program. A commission was appointed to study this problem. After some tentative beginnings, a full-time recreation director was hired by the board of education in 1939, with financial support from the city. During the years following, there was a steady acquisition of park properties by the city and the board of education, and a continuous development of other recreational facilities. The recreational advisory committee was organized in 1948, and is today responsible for the program as described.

New Castle, Pennsylvania

New Castle, a community of approximately 50,000 in western Pennsylvania, is cited here chiefly because of the nature of its sponsorship and administrative support. Its actual program will be described only very briefly. The recreation department in New Castle is jointly sponsored by the city and board of education, and is supervised by a full-time recreation director, employed by a city recreation board. In existence since 1956 in its present form, this board is made up of two representatives from the school board, two from the city council, and one from the community at large.

PROGRAM

Municipal recreation activities in New Castle involve a rather limited year-round indoor season in the schools, and a much more intensive summer playground program. Both are heavily weighted with sports and games, although arts and crafts, a summer music school and other city-wide events, tournaments, and special classes are offered. The major emphasis placed in the annual report is on basketball, baseball, and swimming. Adult recreation activities

appear to be restricted to these areas, and are not at all related to courses in adult education, which are conducted separately by the school district. There is little attempt to achieve a close linkage between the curricular program of the schools and the recreational offerings of the city recreation board, although school principals and advisors are notified of recreational opportunities and services. Thus, this program is chiefly of interest because of its legal background and the pattern of state aid to municipal recreation in Pennsylvania which it illustrates.

CO-SPONSORSHIP RELATIONSHIP

Based on a state Act of July 8, 1919, the city of New Castle appointed a recreation board in 1927, consisting of two members of the city council, two of the school board, and one other, as at present. This was accomplished through a municipal ordinance at that time; and by a later (1945) ordinance. Under the powers granted by these ordinances, both agencies cooperated to develop a variety of recreation facilities, in the subsequent years, which include the following:

1. Certain parks and recreational facilities operated separately by the city of New Castle, under Section 3710 of the Third Class City Code.
2. Seventeen recreational places established and operated by the recreation board, including (a) six properties owned and operated solely by the school district, (b) land owned jointly by the city and school district, (c) city-owned property (six playgrounds and parks), (d) four leased properties.

In 1956, it appeared advantageous to obtain from the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction approval of a recreation program in New Castle, defined as "Extension Education," as provided for in the Public School Code of 1949. This would make it possible to receive financial support from the state, provided that its requirements were observed. The city and school board agreed to the following, in a fully detailed contract:

1. There would be a jointly administered municipal recreation program through a recreation board (constituted as before), whose

administrative officers were to be the superintendent of schools and a director of recreation.

2. There would be a close cooperative relationship with respect to the use of school and municipally owned facilities, buildings, play areas, and parks.

3. The director of the program was to be certified to serve in this position by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction under the Public School Code, and to be specifically an employee of the school district. Similarly, all personnel hired by him (with the concurrence of the recreation board), for positions as supervisors, instructors, and leaders were also to be employees of the school district and to meet certification requirements.

4. All costs of the program, including wages, were to be borne equally by the school district and city. Funds received in reimbursement to the school district from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in partial compensation of wages paid to leadership and supervisory personnel, would be equally refunded to the two participating agencies.

It is apparent that the state reimbursement factor provides a strong motivation to a number of Pennsylvania communities which have school sponsorship or co-sponsorship of municipal recreation programs. In many cases, this amounts to a significant portion of the cost of providing recreation service. The following are several examples:

Abington, Township, Pennsylvania, which has an annual budget for recreation of \$14,000, receives approximately 40 per cent of this amount from the state, as reimbursement, because of its school sponsorship plan.

Donora, Pennsylvania, has a \$12,000 annual recreation budget, of which 25 per cent comes from the municipality, 25 per cent from the school board, and 50 per cent from state reimbursement.

Nanticoke, Pennsylvania, has a \$4,000 recreation budget, of which approximately two-thirds is paid by state reimbursement.

In some cases, the fact that the state stipulates certain requirements has discouraged joint sponsorship of recreation by school systems and municipalities. Thus, in a Pennsylvania city of over 100,000 (not named here), there was a joint sponsorship relationship for a number of years, between the city council and the board

of education. This has been terminated, and there are now two completely separate programs. The director of the school recreation program in this community describes the situation in these words:

The cooperation of all agencies plan [*author's note: rather than actual co-sponsorship*] seems to work best here. We tried the state reimbursement of supervision plan with a five man board (two school directors, two City Council and one at large). This is required if the city is to get reimbursement. But the city withdrew because they could not work "patronage" under this plan (all workers in Pennsylvania's reimbursement plan must be qualified, state-certified and state approved in advance of employment, and all bills and financing is done through the school board).

We get state reimbursement on all our school district recreation because we (the school district) live up to this law. The city does not. This is a sore point with taxpayers, as they think the city should participate as required. A new city administration promised to participate *now*, and to have a recreation board as required. . . .

This statement recalls some of the arguments made earlier for and against school-affiliated recreation programs. The point that school sponsorship eliminates political influence, patronage in hiring, or financial misdealing is suggested here. The response might readily be made—can this not be done just as well through municipal control? Can city government not be as efficient, honest, and professional in its standards with respect to running a recreation program, as a board of education? In this one example, the answer appears to have been negative. A second point may be raised about state-imposed certification requirements for recreation personnel. These requirements usually involve having a teaching certificate. Is a person thus qualified automatically equipped to be a recreation professional? And, by the same token, is it logical that an individual who has a college degree in recreation and actual leadership experience—but who is not certified as a teacher—should not be employable in a school-sponsored recreation program? Certainly, each of these pose serious questions.

Returning to New Castle, it is apparent that the state's requirements are carefully observed and that the reimbursement is justified. At the same time, one might ask whether the recreation program is as meaningfully involved with the school curriculum as is the case in certain other school recreation programs. It would appear that there is little about this program that differentiates it

from many city-sponsored programs. Indeed, the use of school indoor facilities is quite limited; there is not the freedom and flexibility found in other programs described. Examples of difficulty are cited, with respect to the disturbance of rooms, and missing equipment. A considerable portion of the program is apparently carried out on park and playground facilities. What this suggests is that, although certain factors may prompt the assignment of administrative responsibility for recreation to the schools, there must be a whole-hearted acceptance of this responsibility on their part and a full recognition of its contribution to education itself, if the fullest benefits of the relationship are to be achieved.

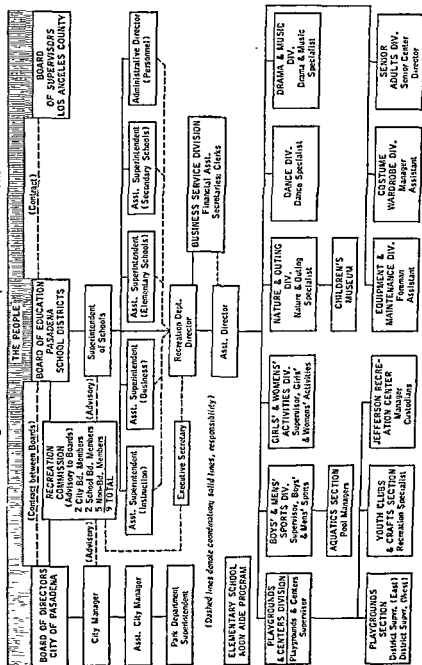
Pasadena, California

In a state known for its large number of excellent school-sponsored community recreation programs, Pasadena is outstanding on two grounds: (1) the effectiveness of its organizational plan, and (2) the quality, depth, and diversity of its program. Within a population area of 200,000 in a unified school district (an additional 40,000 is served in the junior college district) the Pasadena City school system administers a comprehensive program of year-round activity for all ages. It is supported both by the city of Pasadena and the county of Los Angeles, since a number of communities and school districts in unincorporated areas outside the city also are served. The total budget of \$334,861 (at the time of Survey C) is shared in this way: The school board pays 47.3 per cent; city of Pasadena, 41.2 per cent; and county of Los Angeles, 11.5 per cent. In addition, approximately \$50,000 is derived from recreation fees and charges.

The full-time director of recreation, who holds teaching credentials, serves under the superintendent of schools and a recreation commission, which is composed of two members from the board of education, two from the board of city directors, and five from the community at large. The director serves as executive secretary to this commission, and is directly responsible to the superintendent of schools. The following chart illustrates the organizational structure.³

Clearly, while the city and county support the program and

CHART 1. Organization of Pasadena Department of Recreation



cooperate in a number of ways, the clear line of administrative control is exerted through the superintendent of schools and the recreation department director.

Pasadena's coordinated plan makes it possible to schedule use of all school facilities and gear the leisure-time program to the school curriculum, as well as to utilize city parks, the civic auditorium, and other municipally owned facilities. The director of recreation is considered a city department head, and meets regularly with the city manager in this capacity.

The program itself is carried on through a number of divisions based on those being served, or the nature of the recreational experience. These include the following:

PLAYGROUNDS AND CENTERS DIVISION. This is the largest division in the department both in staff and attendance-producing activities. In addition to playground activities at school and park locations, the division is also responsible for a separate recreation center program, noontime recreation at elementary schools, and social activities for youth. This comprises 72 per cent of the total attendance of the department.

BOY'S AND MEN'S SPORTS DIVISION. This division works closely with physical education in the schools in many ways. Flag football, basketball, and track are the nucleus of the Saturday sports program for elementary and junior high boys. Gymnastic training and basketball leagues are set up for the junior high varsity teams. Flag football and basketball are introduced on the elementary levels. Tennis is heavily emphasized with three major tournaments and classes for children and adults. Track events and aquatics, the latter with a total attendance of 92,000 and an outstanding annual water carnival, also are included.

GIRL'S AND WOMEN'S ACTIVITIES DIVISION. This includes seasonal sports for all ages: volleyball, basketball, tennis, softball, playdays, and junior olympics. Ice skating, featuring a mass ice spectacular staged by a cast of 300 children, is also popular. Two hundred women attend "slim and trim" programs.

NATURE AND OUTING PROGRAM. Under the direction of an extremely capable nature and outing specialist, there are twenty

major activities involved that are designed to counteract the effects of urban living. It provides healthy, relaxing outdoor activities, interests, and hobbies in such areas as camping and outdoor education, boating and water activities, archery, lapidary, nature crafts and outdoor photography. The department sponsors a children's museum which is heavily used by the schools. Fifth- and sixth-grade students and teachers participate in a nature-science instructional trip program to interesting natural settings. Other activities include a hunter safety course, nature trips for handicapped children, family "flashlight hikes" in the Angeles National Forest, "dry land ski schools" and ski shows, a fly tying course, a family camping course, and an introduction to fishing program.

DANCE DIVISION. This includes adult square dancing on several levels of ability, ballroom dance courses and parties, children's dance classes in folk dancing, dance concerts and performances, "dance repertoire" and "workshop."

DRAMA AND MUSIC DIVISION. A Youth Theatre Guild offers dramatic instruction and production experience for seventh through fourteenth (junior college) grades. It gives seasonal productions throughout the year at the civic auditorium. There is a "Gold Shell" band and concert series, a talent search, and a number of other opportunities for performing groups in the music field.

SENIOR CITIZENS' SECTION. A Pasadena Senior Center was opened recently; it attracted such a number of participants that it was necessary to set a maximum limit of 1,450 members. Programs are planned for a seven-day week, and are staffed by the members themselves, with aid from the Junior League and professional staff of the recreation department. The senior center's program features a wide variety of hobby, educational, and self-improvement activities; clubs; and special events.

Other divisions of the recreation department include an equipment and maintenance division and a costume wardrobe division.

One of the strengths of the Pasadena program lies in the extent to which it receives cooperation from other community agencies and departments. A partial list of these includes the board of city directors; the Pasadena Park Department; the fire, police, light, and engineering departments; city casting clubs; Kiwanis Club, Ex-

change Club; county music commission; Council of Parents and Teachers; Junior Chamber of Commerce, California Fish and Game Commission; National Rifle Association; boys' sports Committee; Y's, Men's Club; Badminton Club; and the Pasadena Chapter of the American National Red Cross.

A high proportion of the recreation tax dollar (over 60 per cent) is spent on leadership. In addition to the director, there are 24 full-time staff members, who are all certified as teachers. The educational significance of the program is supported by the superintendent of schools, who comments, "Increased academic emphasis has even clarified the importance of leisure-time activities and recreation." The recreation program is closely articulated with such curriculum fields as physical education, art, music, and social studies. Certain academic subjects, such as reading, literature, writing, science, and foreign languages, are approached with their leisure education outcomes a concern of the teacher. In addition, the nature and outing specialist cooperates in a number of classroom science programs.

There has been no difficulty in obtaining use of school facilities because the recreation program is so integrally a part of the educational system. The recreation director has been influential in the planning of community-school swimming pools, play areas, gymnasiums, and other park-school facilities. He is able to make use of city parks and buildings in his program and has also developed cooperative relationships with commercial recreation centers. Non-school organizations use school facilities widely.

With respect to professional leadership in the Pasadena program, all those hired for full-time positions are college graduates; part-time employees may be college students. As in other community recreation programs (whether sponsored by schools or municipalities), many part-time or specialist leaders tend to be school teachers. In Pasadena, these individuals are not considered to be automatically qualified as *recreation leaders*, although training in education is viewed as helpful. Pre- and in-service training is provided to further equip them to work effectively in recreation.

The Pasadena recreation director makes the following points with respect to school-connected recreation:

For many years, I was a superintendent of a city department with school cooperation, and for the past nine years have headed a school-

administered coordinated program. In my opinion, the schools are in a very advantageous position to administer the total program, for the following reasons: (1) in most communities, the schools have the preponderance of facilities—gyms, pools, playgrounds, etc. These can best be utilized as a member of the education team. (2) Most of the participants are school-age children, kindergarten through junior college. As staff members on the educational team, we can articulate with curriculum in the fields of physical education, music, art, science, etc. This gives meaning to the recreation activities carried on out of school hours. (3) In California, we have the 5¢ recreation tax applicable to school districts. Our boards can permissively (without going to voters) levy up to 5¢ per \$100 exclusively for recreation. Cities and counties do not have this permissive legislation. (4) There is a great deal of school leadership which can and should be used in the recreation program.

We understand that there is no one set pattern for any given community, but we have had 39 years of this plan and our people like it very much. You will note that we also run the city program via contract. . . .

In most city park and recreation departments, I have found that the combined budgets are heavy on maintenance—sprinkler systems, turf, street trees, etc.—and very little for the recreation programming which is the real leadership service to the people.

I strongly favor school administration of the program, everything else being equal; secondly, I favor a separate recreation department with 100 per cent emphasis on recreation programming so the parks can get their own budget and provide facilities, maintenance, etc.

It must be commented that one of the reasons for school sponsorship working so successfully in California is that the state itself has an extremely high regard for recreation. The climate; the availability of natural recreation resources, and the aggressive, live, on-the-move spirit of the people have created a year-round emphasis on play surpassing that found in any other state. As a consequence, the state laws mentioned earlier, empowering the schools to operate effectively in this area, have been passed. An over-all atmosphere of community approval makes it possible for school boards and administrators to regard recreation as of major importance. This sort of attitude is almost completely lacking in certain other regions of the country; there are no effective programs of school-sponsored recreation in these areas, and even school cooperative practices are quite limited.

Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Unlike Pasadena, municipal recreation in Milwaukee (population 740,000) is sponsored exclusively by the Milwaukee public schools, under the board of school directors. Administratively, it is titled the "Department of Municipal Recreation and Adult Education" (hereafter referred to as the "recreation department") and is under the direction of an assistant superintendent, who works directly under the superintendent of schools. The budget of \$2,248,000 is provided by the school board, which makes use of a special 1.1 mill tax intended to raise funds for recreation use alone.

Administratively, the employees of the recreation department are governed by rules similar to, but separate from, those affecting day-school personnel. The department's budget, program, and plans for the use of school buildings are approved annually by the school board. In the view of the school administration:

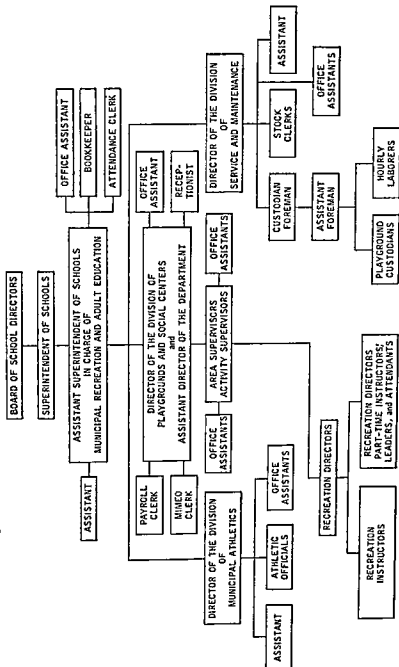
This administrative arrangement insures the maintenance of sound, broad educational objectives in program planning and conduct. The use of school buildings eliminates duplication of indoor recreation facilities. The Recreation Department pays its proportionate share of maintenance and operation costs; it also pays for alterations and repairs of facilities, occasioned by its program. Playgrounds and playfields, either adjacent to schools or in separate areas, are utilized for outdoor activities.

A table of organization (Chart 2)⁴ demonstrates the organizational setup. The Milwaukee program is a large one, involving a total of about 50 professional employees (recreation directors, supervisors, and leaders) and over 70 classified employees (custodians, secretaries, and clerks). All full-time professional recreation workers are college graduates, with the majority having special training in recreation or closely allied fields.

Although the school recreation department is independent of other governmental agencies, it cooperates closely with the following:

COMMON COUNCIL. Under a special agreement, the council annually appropriates funds for the purchase of land for playgrounds, or for the enlargement of existing playgrounds. When the

CHART 2. Organization of Milwaukee Department of Municipal Recreation and Adult Recreation



school board purchases land for new schools, it selects sites with sufficient area for neighborhood playgrounds, or playfields, if recommended. In either case, the common council provides funds for the development of new playground and playfield areas, and, upon completion of the work, turns the facility over to the school board for maintenance and operation. Milwaukee has adopted the policy of constructing playgrounds and playfields adjacent to elementary schools for reasons of economy in capital outlay and maintenance costs, and making sure the areas are used to maximum degree. Safety factors (traffic and other hazards) are considered in making these choices.

PUBLIC LAND COMMISSION. The city's board of public land commissioners, in cooperation with the school board, prepares a long-term program of land acquisition and development for recreation use every ten years, subject to periodic adjustments.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WORKS. This department has on its staff a playground engineer who assists the director of the recreation department in planning the annual construction program and specific playground layouts.

MILWAUKEE COUNTY PARK COMMISSION. This agency has jurisdiction over park areas in the city and county. It also employs a recreation director, who plans programs cooperatively with the school board's recreation director. Certain activities are conducted exclusively by each department. Others, such as camping and outdoor education, are planned jointly, with the park commission providing facilities and the municipal recreation department organizing, promoting, and conducting the program.

WISCONSIN CONSERVATION DEPARTMENT. Through an agreement with this agency, the school program makes use of certain areas and facilities in nearby state forest areas.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON RECREATION MATTERS. Although there is no advisory committee on recreation which works solely with the school program, there is a joint committee on recreation matters which consists of two school board directors, two aldermen, and two county supervisors. This group meets regularly and sub-

mits recommendations on recreation problems to the three governmental agencies involved.

With respect to program and underlying philosophy, the school recreation department sees as its purpose:

. . . to promote the well-rounded personality development of boys and girls, men and women. Emphasis is placed upon the educational rather than the entertainment values of recreation. Activities are arranged so as to provide self-improvement and satisfaction for the participants. Organized recreation and informal adult education both use a variety of means to reach such ends as increased learning, better social adjustment and needed relaxation.

The program is geared approximately one-third for adults, and two-thirds for children and youth. On the adult level, there is no sharp distinction between adult education and recreation. Recreation is simply viewed as a less formal means of adult education. The concept of educational purpose in leisure and recreation is strongly supported. The director writes that, in many communities, "school board members and educators do not understand the need and value of play and leisure time programs for all ages. Academic subjects and grades are their primary interest." But this is not true in Milwaukee. He says, "The Superintendent has called our playgrounds, 'outdoor classrooms.' "

Specifically, the program falls into several major categories.

NEIGHBORHOOD PROGRAMS

PLAYGROUNDS. A daily program of neighborhood playgrounds for children from about five years of age through the mid-teens provides all types of individual, competitive, and social play. Some playgrounds provide other special activities for the very young, or for young adults. During the summer season, the daily program of most playgrounds is enriched with a variety of special classes; craft, puppetry, dance and baton twirling, chess, story-telling, "Trailer Theater"—all regarded as important phases of living and learning. Of the over 100 playgrounds currently operated, over 60 per cent are lighted for evening use.

CHILDREN'S SOCIAL CENTERS. Social centers for children of elementary school age are operated in over 40 elementary schools

throughout the city, from two to five afternoons a week and on Saturdays through the day. Activities include such gymnasium activities as basketball, volleyball, tumbling, dancing, and baton twirling. Arts and crafts, drama, music, clubs and hobby groups, game room activities, and nature trips and clubs are also widely sponsored, although programs vary in each center. Most activities are completely free, although art classes require a small fee for materials, and clubs sometimes establish token membership fees; special entertainments may also have very low admission charges.

EVENING SOCIAL CENTERS. In 30 such centers, termed "Lighted Schoolhouses," a wide variety of youth and adult activities are open during the evenings, from two to five evenings a week. Adult activities include arts and crafts, contract bridge, golf, ballroom and square dancing, drama, band, civil defense, driver education, needlecraft, and chorus. Teen-age programs for high school youth provide special interest groups, sports, table games, parties, contests and tournaments, and other special club activities.

CITY-WIDE PROGRAMS

Adult programs are geared to provide relaxation, improvement of recreation skills, creative fulfillment, social contacts, and intellectual growth. Through a system of adult centers, operated in three schools that is conducted on a two-semester basis with a small charge, informal classes are offered in eight general categories:

(1) *arts and crafts*, (2) *music and drama*, (3) *recreation skills*, (4) *personal health*, (5) *family living*, (6) *home and household*, (7) *contemporary interests*, and (8) *citizen preparation for new Americans*. More than 60 different courses are available under these headings. Since these classes are informal, they differ in emphasis and spirit from more formal or academic adult education programs which are offered by recognized schools and colleges in the Milwaukee area. The departmental manual points out:

In this program, it is sometimes difficult to determine exactly what is recreation and what is education, for, in the final analysis, the difference lies in the individual's reason for participating in the activity. Thus, the same leisure-time pursuit may be recreation for one person, education for another, and a little of both for the third.

Drama and music are also approached as important city-wide adult activities, including such organizations as the Milwaukee Players and the Milwaukee Light Opera Chorus. Members of these groups are amateurs who come from all over the city and from many backgrounds; their emphasis is on presenting plays, musicals, and operettas in as professional a way as possible. Some of their productions in the past have included: *Macbeth*, *Carousel*, *Mourning Becomes Electra*, *South Pacific*, and *Madwoman of Chaillot*. Under the direction of the recreation department's drama supervisor, young children also have participated in a number of traveling theater programs, in which they rehearse and act; serve on the stage crew; do make-up and costume design; and, in alternating casts, tour the city. Many other less formal singing groups, choruses, and other musical organizations meet in neighborhood social centers.

As in Pasadena, outdoor education is also an extremely important part of the city-wide program. Nature jaunts are organized for large groups of children who are organized at summer playgrounds. Young children attend four-day Teepee Camps during the summer, which emphasize Indian lore. Children aged eight to 12 may enroll in week-long day camps, held in the Kettle Moraine State Forest, which involve nature hikes; woodland crafts; cook-outs; campfire hours; and trips to conservation planning areas, fish hatcheries, "look-out" peaks, and dairy farms.

During the spring, a "Green Thumb" gardening program is organized on a playground basis for children, aged eight to 11. Older boys and girls participate in hikes and overnight camping at parks and in the forest area, under the supervision of departmental employees. Other activities include junior and senior conservation clubs; astronomy clubs; 4-H Clubs; a junior Audubon program; gun, boat, and water safety clinics; and fishing trips. Nature study programs are also offered by the department to both public and parochial schools. Older individuals are served by adult hiking clubs, and the Family Camping Association, in which over 1,000 families are involved.

Still other city-wide programs include an extensive Golden Age program, serving several thousand senior citizens, which is coordinated by a club council that consists of representatives from each unit; annual hobby shows; weekly dances; a monthly news bulletin; numerous trips and outings, a Golden Age chorus; and an annual

publication. Various service projects contribute meaningfully to the members' sense of participating actively in community life.

The recreation department also sponsors a municipal athletic program for male teen-agers and adults in such sports as baseball, basketball, dartball, indoor track, skating, softball, swimming, tennis, and volleyball. The Women's Athletic Association similarly meets the needs of younger women in seasonal activities like badminton, basketball, softball, table tennis, and volleyball. The department sponsors a springtime boys' baseball school and a girls' softball school.

Finally, the department makes available meeting space in social centers and playground field houses to self-organized groups that are recreational or educational in nature, provided that they are open to the public and without political, racial, or religious bias. Typical groups include ethnic folk dance organizations, glee clubs, study clubs, and community service committees.

Viewed as a whole, the Milwaukee program illustrates an effective plan for combined community recreation and informal adult education, completely sponsored by the school, but with the effective and wholehearted cooperation of all appropriate governmental agencies. In the view of the director: "There are many good programs conducted by Recreation Commissions or Park Departments. The advantage of a school board controlled program is that it permits use of school facilities, coordinating school and recreation programs, and programs planned and conducted according to sound educational principles."

Los Angeles, California

Probably the most extensive program of school-sponsored community recreation service in the United States today is found in Los Angeles, a municipality of approximately 2.5 million residents. There, the Los Angeles City schools operate a program serving chiefly youth (85 per cent) but also providing a variety of services for adults (15 per cent). The specific department in charge of this program, which is both financially and administratively a function of the Los Angeles Board of Education, is the Youth Services Section.

As in Pasadena, the school recreation program in Los Angeles is supported by the community services recreation tax, to the extent of an annual budget of approximately \$3,500,000. This comes almost completely from the Los Angeles School District, with a small annual subsidy from Los Angeles County for the operation of school recreation programs in unincorporated areas. Although certain other agencies, such as the Los Angeles City Recreation and Parks Department, and the Los Angeles County Parks and Recreation Department, cooperate in the providing of services or in the use of facilities, the school-sponsored program is independent of all other political units of government, in that it sets its own tax rate, employs personnel, and builds and operates recreation facilities independently.

The full-time supervisor-in-charge heads a staff of 16 full-time, year-round professional recreation workers, and about 3,400 part-time leaders. The activities presented make use of over 500 school locations and a wide variety of other facilities and areas.

As indicated earlier, Los Angeles was one of the pioneers in school-sponsored recreation services. In 1911, the municipal recreation department began operating school playground programs during school vacation periods. In 1914, the Board of Education itself began offering physical recreation activities on after-school playgrounds in 20 locations throughout the district. In 1925, the schools began operating school playgrounds on the basis of the 1917 Civic Center Act, with separate appropriations set up by the board of education for this purpose. In the years following, the program expanded considerably; the Youth Services Section itself was established in 1945, and, with the help of the community services tax authorized in 1951, has continued to expand to its present level.

Administratively speaking, the recreation program is part of the Physical Education, Safety, and Youth Services Branch of the Instructional Services Division of the Los Angeles City schools. The majority of its employees are certificated teachers who take part-time recreation assignments in addition to their regular teaching duties. It is the conviction of the program director that many highly skilled individuals with recreation leadership experience may be found on the teaching staffs of schools. With in-service training and adequate supervision, they make competent leaders, he believes. Those Los Angeles recreation leaders and administra-

tors who are full-time professionals must qualify for their positions through a Civil Service examination.

Over ten million attendance units are recorded each year, with all ages and levels of participants, including elementary school, junior and senior high school, junior college, young adults, senior citizens, and certain special groups. In addition, hundreds of business, industry, labor, religious, and ethnic groups use the school for civic, social, and recreational purposes, as defined in a manual on "Use of School Facilities." The Youth Services Section also makes use of private, governmental, and other nonschool facilities, just as Pasadena and Milwaukee do.

Program activities fall into the same general categories as those described in Pasadena and Milwaukee: arts and crafts, social activities, trips and excursions, musical activities, physical recreation, outdoor education and camping, dramatics, dance, day camping, and other areas related to citizenship and community service. In all, some 500 recreation-education experiences are listed in the brochures and schedules of these departments. These include a number of ingenious experiments in recreation programing, such as the wintertime snow trips to the Big Pines recreation area about 85 miles from Los Angeles. Whenever possible, activities are on a no-charge basis, except for minimum fees for bus transportation or certain other special services.

Although the Youth Services Section does not include adult education as such, partly because of its emphasis on youth activities and partly because of the clear line drawn by the state department of education between adult education and recreation, it is clearly geared to promoting the over-all educational objectives of the schools. Its philosophy is illustrated in a 1960 statement of the California State Department of Education and the California Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, which establishes six major principles:

1. Schools should educate for the worthy use of leisure.
2. Schools should achieve maximum articulation between instruction and recreation.
3. Schools should coordinate and mobilize total community resources for recreation.
4. Schools should develop cooperative planning of recreation facilities.

5. Education should encourage, stimulate, and produce research in recreation.
6. Education should stress professional preparation of recreation personnel.

These are not very different from the policies proposed in 1956 by the "Eastern Task Force" of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, which were described in Chapter Seven. The difference is that, in California, school recreation has been widely accepted and is supported by state laws; the proposals therefore have real weight. In order to implement the principles listed above, the Los Angeles youth services section has developed a number of clearly stated program objectives with respect to major areas of purpose. Two sets of objectives are described here, which illustrate graphically the orientation of the program.

CO-EDUCATIONAL PHYSICAL RECREATION ACTIVITIES

With respect to this objective, it is made clear that physical recreation for mixed groups of teen-age boys and girls should have social outcomes as a primary value, rather than a heavy stress on winning over the opposing team. "Fun nights" or "sports nights" programs in the schools offer activities which keep boys and girls together, rather than enforce separation between them; they include ping pong, chess, checkers, relay contests, some dancing, and various stunts. Specifically, the following objectives are cited.

1. To encourage in school recreational activities desirable social training for later adult life.
2. To offer boys and girls the opportunity to become facile in sports which would otherwise be unknown to them.
3. To form a common meeting place for all types of students, rather than just the "dancing" crowd, the "sports" crowd, or the "social" crowd.
4. To aid parents in providing wholesome nighttime recreation for their children of an uncommercialized, non-sensational, non-overstimulating nature.
5. To make the school more of a community center.
6. To reduce the cliques, gangs, groupings, and selections

based on socioeconomic status which tend to become stratified in the school.

7. To provide an outlet for economically and socially underprivileged youth in less fortunate neighborhoods.

SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

It is pointed out that, although all activities in the youth services section are to some extent social, there are certain events, such as proms; noontime dances; dramatics activities; or other forms of teas, reunions, or get-togethers (sometimes in connection with other activities, such as athletics contests), which have primary social outcomes. The objectives for these include:

1. Teaching the basic principles of social etiquette in a context of reality, instead of through theory; learning social amenities by participating in enjoyable social situations.
2. Inculcating an appreciation of the cultural background and values of other peoples by learning their dances, rhythms, music, phrases, costumes, pastimes.
3. Overcoming social reticence, especially the boys' "stag-line" sensitiveness.
4. Providing wholesome transitional activities for the adolescent and the teen-ager.
5. Helping youngsters develop a wide number of acquaintances drawn from the school as a whole.
6. Providing opportunity for association under decent auspices with the opposite sex, and with those of varying socioeconomic status.
7. Bringing to the fore social group activity, as in folk and square dancing.
8. Providing experiences whereby pupils will be able to discriminate among good, bad, and mediocre forms of entertainment.

Although some may protest that young people can do this kind of thing for themselves, and that all this is merely a normal part of growing up which does not need to be "institutionalized" or "group processed," the evidence is to the contrary. There are too many examples and statistics of social maladjustment among today's young people—of "forced" teen-age marriage and other

forms of antisocial or destructive behavior—to accept this position. And, if the trend toward academic emphasis within the school's curricular program becomes even more pronounced, which seems to be the case, it is going to be more and more important that well-thought out and sensitively administered leisure programs be offered for high school students today.

Merely listing recreational objectives does not mean that they are realized, of course. However, it is reasonable to assume that, when they are carefully thought out, when competent leadership and supervision are provided, and when there is a thorough and repeated evaluation of outcomes, significant progress may be made toward achieving these objectives.

Summary

This chapter contains detailed descriptions of recreation programs sponsored by school systems in seven communities ranging in size between 8,000 and two and one-half million.

It is demonstrated that, in smaller communities, school sponsorship may afford an excellent mechanism for providing recreation services for all age levels, so long as there is solid public and administrative acceptance of this function. Within such communities, the recreation director may be given other minor or allied responsibilities, which makes his full-time employment acceptable to the community and school board, in terms of expense.

In somewhat larger communities the examples cited stress the joint sponsorship approach, in which there is a single program, usually financed jointly by the school and municipality, but administered by the school. Here, the municipality is usually in a position to offer the use of certain outdoor areas and possibly special buildings or facilities, while the school provides the bulk of actual leadership and activity programing. It must be made clear that, unless the principle of school responsibility is clearly accepted and there is a sincere conviction that education and recreation are significantly related, this relationship is likely to represent little more than administrative convenience or a token compliance with state law, in order to obtain financial assistance. When this is the case, no real advantage is found in the school's participation in

co-sponsorship, and a real disadvantage may exist in that the community may feel that it does not *need* to go ahead to develop a full-fledged, fully adequate recreation program.

In the larger cities described, it seems inevitable that no single agency is capable of carrying out the complete task of recreation sponsorship. The needs are simply too vast and too varied. Thus, no school system is likely to successfully develop a full range of parks, playfields, and other natural settings or special areas for outdoor recreation, or to provide a comprehensive system of indoor facilities needed for daytime recreation, Golden Age, and other special groups. On the other hand, the school is in a uniquely favorable position to provide an outstanding program of social and recreational activities for children and youth, of an athletic nature or in cultural or creative areas, and to provide combined programs of adult education and adult recreation, as described here.

In such large municipalities, it appears to be through the coordinated efforts of separate school and city recreation agencies that the most satisfactory provision of recreation services can be made.

One question that has been frequently raised with respect to school-sponsored recreation programs deals with leadership. The point is made that (1) teachers, who are not usually skilled in recreation leadership or imbued with recreation philosophy, do not make good leaders in this field—in any case, they approach it as an “also-ran” responsibility; and (2) the practice of requiring recreation professionals within a school sponsored program to have teaching credentials means that unqualified persons may be hired, and potentially qualified persons who do not possess teaching credentials may be excluded. Each of these points is worthy of consideration here.

In the seven programs described, it was the belief of the directors that, while all teachers are not suited by training or personality to be good recreation workers, many of them are. With careful selection of those with appropriate skills and temperaments, and with in-service training and good supervision, it was felt that they make excellent recreation leaders. Certainly, it is a fact that, within many municipally sponsored recreation programs, school teachers are *also* hired as part-time or summer leaders.

With regard to the second point, there is in many communities

the policy that recreation personnel must meet state teaching certification requirements. In New Jersey, for example, it is state policy (under a program titled "Permissive Endorsement in Recreation") that school recreation employees be required to have a teacher's certificate, and either 30 or 18 semester-hour credits in such areas as community recreation theory, history, philosophy, administration, first aid and safety, outdoor education and camping, and leadership skills in recreation. This policy, however, is *not* universally enforced, any more than it is the policy in most states to have municipal recreation personnel hired through Civil Service examination, or to have a universally enforced, rigorous system of course accreditation and certification.

Another state, Minnesota, provides that "in all cases where school funds or property are utilized, the state board of education shall: (1) establish *minimum qualifications of local recreation directors and instructors*; . . ."

Under this system, a recreation director is considered to be a person who works full time on a school year or calendar year basis and who is under contract with a school board or cooperating agency to organize and direct the local recreation program. It is required that he have a bachelor's degree with a college major in the field of recreation leadership. A part-time recreation director is required to have not less than eight to nine quarter credits in resident or extension work in courses in recreational theory, leadership, and administration—*whether or not he is a certified teacher*.

In a number of other states or large cities, special requirements have thus been set up, to insure that the school teacher who is assigned a special administrative or supervisory task in recreation *have* special training in recreation which—while not necessarily equal to a degree in this field—supplements his previous training. Ultimately, it is to be hoped that when a nationwide system of accreditation of recreation curriculums and certification of recreation professionals is adopted, both school and community hiring agencies will adhere to its requirements.

To conclude this chapter, it must be recognized that, in about 90 per cent of the communities or counties throughout the United States that reported recreation programs in the *1961 Parks and Recreation Yearbook*, schools were *not* major recreation sponsors or co-sponsors. In these communities, another agency had assumed the responsibility. However, it is a basic premise of this book that

no community can have an effective program of public, tax-supported recreation *without* the full cooperation of the schools. To offer this cooperation—recognizing that the facilities owned by the schools are the property of the taxpayers and that recreation service is not an opposing or competing function, but a related, essential one—is a primary obligation of the schools. It should be expected by every taxpayer that school administrators and boards will cooperate in every way possible with municipal recreation departments, in serving public needs, without setting up artificial barriers or difficulties.

The following and final chapter deals with the question of cooperation between school systems which do *not* sponsor community recreation programs, and municipal agencies which *do*. The problems and difficulties that exist in this relationship are described in detail, and, based on constructive practices throughout the country that were revealed in the author's 1962 survey, a set of guides for effective cooperation are proposed.

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*Patterns of Effective Cooperation
Between Schools and
Recreation Departments*

No single agency can be expected to administer all of the public parks and recreation facilities in the metropolitan city. Inevitably there will be a park or recreation department of the municipal government, usually one with consolidated park and recreation functions. Such an agency will of necessity be limited by city charter or by legal interpretation to the operation of properties of which the city has title. Additionally, the school district or districts will permit school buildings and grounds to be used for recreational purposes with much, if not all, of this program directly under school administration and financed from school funds or conducted on permit by community-serving agencies.

The provision of neighborhood playgrounds cannot be complete according to any reasonable standard in any large metropolitan city unless the school grounds complement the municipal park and recreation centers. Parks and recreation centers will always be fewer than schools within a city.¹

GEORGE HJELTE

IT HAS BEEN demonstrated that, in only a limited number of communities in the United States, the schools have taken on a major responsibility for sponsoring or co-sponsorship public recreation programs. In by far the larger number of cities, towns, and counties, another public agency has assumed the task, and the role of the school is that of a cooperating agency.

Use of School Facilities for Recreation

The chief way, then, in which school systems are able to cooperate with other municipal recreation agencies is through the provision of facilities for use in recreation programing. Clearly, few communities, large or small, are in a financial position to build a complete set of facilities that will duplicate those already available through the schools—gymnasiums, outdoor playgrounds and playfields, music and art rooms, auditoriums, swimming pools, and other workshops and meeting rooms. This is particularly true in those communities that expanded rapidly after World War II and the Korean War, and had to pass successive, expensive bond issues for school construction. What possible excuse can there be for not having school-owned (which really means tax-payer-owned) property and facilities used by the public to their fullest potential?

Obviously, the concept of using school facilities for recreation purposes is not a new one. Chapter Seven gives much of the early history of such practices. In more recent years, H. Clifton Hutchins of the planning staff of the National Recreation Association, carried out a detailed study which revealed "the extensive use of school buildings for community recreation and effective cooperative relationships between school and recreation authorities. . . ." Published in 1950, this study revealed: (1) an increasing readiness on the part of school authorities to make their buildings available for recreational uses, (2) certain types of restrictions on the nature of use of buildings or other facilities, (3) the nature of charges or fees imposed, (4) and administrative arrangements and other factors which contributed to desirable cooperative relationships and to effective procedures for solving difficulties.

The 1961 *Parks and Recreation Yearbook* of the National

Recreation Association indicated that the number of school buildings in which community recreation programs were offered under leadership doubled during the decade from 1950 to 1960.³ In all, some 11,815 school areas were used by recreation authorities responding to the N.R.A. survey, with only one-fifth of these authorities actually being school boards or districts. The yearbook reveals that community recreation programs were conducted regularly under leadership in 16,960 buildings in 1960. Three-fourths of these were school buildings; less than one-fourth were special recreation buildings; and the balance were city halls, churches, or other buildings used only incidentally for recreation.

The author's investigation of school-community relationships in 1962-1963 supports these findings. Of the 240 municipal recreation directors who responded to Survey B, 232 (96.6 per cent) indicated that, in their programs, use was made of at least one school facility or area (Survey B, item 28). The most frequently used facility was the school gymnasium. Next in use were outdoor areas, theatre or auditorium, arts and crafts rooms, and music rooms. Clearly, the availability of school facilities is essential today for the fullest operation of most community recreation programs.

Reciprocal Use of Community Facilities

Interestingly, this arrangement is heavily reciprocated. In response to the question, "*Do the public schools make use of facilities (parks, playgrounds, and so on) that are owned or operated by your department?*" 206 replied "yes" and only 13 "no." This included the extensive use of baseball or softball diamonds, park areas and playgrounds, tennis courts, pools, football fields, and other outdoor or athletic facilities. Some examples of such reciprocal arrangements follow:

Two colleges, public schools and the park board swap use of all facilities at all times. We use their gyms, they use our open spaces and athletic fields; we use some schools for playgrounds. To date, no rentals have been charged. [Moorhead, Minnesota]

The schools use . . . city stadia, parks, pools, centers and golf course, free of charge. . . . [Bryan, Texas]

Perhaps the good feeling between the public school authorities and

the civic recreation authorities developed a number of years ago, when one of the school board members suggested perhaps that recreation should pay for the use of gymnasiums. At that time a survey was made showing that in a year's time, public schools were using city facilities 4,000 hours (or better) during the school year and that the recreation department was using public school facilities better than 2,000 hours during the year. Consequently, there has been nothing said about either public schools or the recreation department paying for the use of facilities. The present school administration feels that all school buildings are public facilities and should be used afternoons and evenings as much as possible. [*Battle Creek, Michigan*]

The Board of Education uses 14 of the Recreation Department's swimming pools . . . for their Health and Physical Education programs. . . . The Department supplies the facility, chemicals, the cleaner, and the watchman; and the Board of Education supplies a qualified and certified Red Cross Instructor and the health and physical education teacher who normally would be appointed to the class conducts the boys and girls to the pools. The junior high schools use 130 recreation facilities during the spring and fall for their intermural and athletic programs. . . . [*Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*]

Such reciprocal use of facilities is not always equitable or without bitterness. A number of municipal recreation directors made comments in the following vein:

They may use our facilities free of charge, but we must reimburse them for any expenses incurred while using their facilities (custodian's salaries, restroom supplies, utilities, etc.) [*Kansas City, Kansas*]

They think what you own is theirs without question; this is a national trend. . . . We pay for the use of their facilities and they use ours free. [*Melbourne, Florida*]

We pay for the use of school facilities, but Parks and Recreation furnish ball diamonds, tennis courts, football and track practice fields, etc., with no charge to schools. We must pay caretakers the same as they pay janitors. Charges for use are higher with principals who do not value recreation. . . . [*Louisville, Kentucky*]

Problems Relating to Use of School Facilities

In his survey, the author asked the specific question (Survey B, item 31), "What problems do you encounter, in working with

school administrators, in connection with use of their facilities?"

The largest single group, 112 (46.6 per cent of those replying to the questionnaire) indicated that they had no major or serious problems, that they had "few" problems, or that cooperation was very good. A number of responses in this vein follow:

We encounter very few problems; they are most cooperative. . . . The school superintendent requests my advice and assistance in school blueprints. They want their buildings used by our department. [*Racine, Wisconsin*]

Ever since the Recreation Board was created in 1942, there have been excellent relationships between the Board of Education and the Recreation Board. By agreement, school buildings and grounds are used for community recreation under direction of the Recreation Department . . . (which) has jurisdiction over school properties for all uses other than those of an educational nature. We issue permits for the use of school auditoriums by community groups, etc. [*Washington, D. C.*]

We have a very fine working agreement between the Municipal Recreation Commission, the City School District and Parks Department. The Commission uses Park facilities and School facilities. The Schools use some Park facilities also. The Commission owns very little in the way of facilities and does very little in maintenance. [*Binghamton, New York*]

If there is a night janitor in a building, we furnish a supervisor and get the building completely free of all cost. If no janitor is assigned, we hire the janitor and a supervisor and get the building free. We make every possible effort to get a supervisor from the staff normally using the building during the day. We make every effort to loan both facilities and equipment to the schools. Generally, when we are in a gym, we use school balls (basketballs or volleyballs); when they play baseball, they use our bases, etc. We are quite frequently drawn into planning of facilities (except for site purchase) and we cross-check activities frequently to eliminate duplication. . . . [*Moorhead, Minnesota*]

We strive for maximum utilization of all facilities through joint use and initial joint planning. [What prompts us is] . . . unselfishness and a desire to give the community maximum benefits for its tax dollars. . . . [*East Orange, New Jersey*]

However, in response to the same question, a total of 106 municipal recreation officials cited the following kinds of problems and difficulties: (1) problems of obtaining use of facilities; scheduling; cancellations; or excessive, arbitrarily set fees; (2) over-

protectiveness on the part of school administrators, and problems relating to damage of property and facilities; (3) a general lack of communication with school administrators, and a feeling that they held the recreation program in low esteem; and (4) specific friction with school custodians. A number of illustrative comments follow:

Our use is limited by heavy school use; custodian's schedules are inflexible and unrealistic. Schools are not available after 9:30 P.M. or on Saturdays. [*Cedar Rapids, Iowa*]

Many do not wish their school to be used; we are blamed for much damage that does not occur during our program. [*Sioux City, Iowa*]

[They are] reluctant to make facilities available, even on a charge basis. This attitude prevails on top level. . . . [*Presque Isle, Maine*]

School functions take priority over our activities, and they are often cancelled out even though we have them scheduled in advance. [*Beaver Dam, Wisconsin*]

School superintendent decides in his own mind whether the proposed recreation program is good or bad and allows building use accordingly. [*La Porte, Indiana*]

Principals permit use of buildings to groups other than Recreation Department without supervision. Educators are not enlightened at times concerning the school-community concept. [*Fairfax County, Virginia*]

In all, there were 140 references to difficulties found in making use of school facilities. Frequently, fees were mentioned as being a key problem.

Fees Charged for Use of School Facilities

Practices vary widely from state to state, and even within counties or districts. In a 1959 survey carried out in Westchester County, New York,⁴ it was found that almost all community recreation departments made extensive use of public school facilities, but that

. . . a number of our public recreation officials are becoming rather discouraged of late due to the increased difficulties encountered in obtaining the use of school facilities for public recreation programs. Further, the exorbitant fees charged in some communities for the use

of public school facilities has done much to curtail public recreation programs.

Among the 35 communities represented in this Westchester County survey, there was no common pattern with respect to the charging of custodial fees, or rental charges for the use of facilities or use of utilities. In some cases, annual fees are set; in most others, there are hourly custodial rates, with minimum amounts charged for evening use. In the village of Scarsdale, for example, ". . . there is a charge for matrons, the use of stage equipment, the marking of fields and the rental of tennis courts. Also a contract with one school district within the Village for \$6,600 per year for use of school facilities."

Many other patterns are demonstrated in the survey. In one town which has several school districts, there are no custodial fees for activities intended for participants within a single sponsoring district; however, if an activity is offered on a town-wide basis, a fee is charged. Another community has a reciprocal agreement with the Board of Education, under which it may use all school facilities with no rent or charge for custodians. In return, the Board of Education may use city-owned tennis courts and all baseball, football, and soccer fields, similarly without charge. Another municipal recreation department which has no facilities for the Board of Education to use is permitted full use of indoor and outdoor facilities without rental charges, but it must pay custodial fees for evening use of the gymnasium.

In a number of communities, fees are set as a matter of whim, without consistency or logic. This is supported in part, by the findings of an extensive survey, published in 1961, of the "Use of School Facilities for Recreation Activities Other than Intra-Mural Program, in 76 Cities of 100,000 Through 900,000 Population."⁵ Carried out by the executive secretary of the Des Moines Council of Social Agencies, the report of this investigation reveals a widespread use of school facilities, particularly gymnasiums and auditoriums, most heavily in the Midwest and West, and with least usage in the South and East.

With respect to fees, while there was no common pattern, it was found that boards of education charged fees of recreation authorities in 37 of 62 cities (59.7 per cent) having this arrangement. Fees were based on the actual cost of the custodian, light,

and heat in only 23 (62 per cent) of the 37 departments paying such fees; in the others, the charges seemed to be made arbitrarily.

Of 182 municipal recreation executives who responded to a question regarding "*nature of charges for use of facilities*," in the author's 1962 survey, 100 (54.9 per cent) indicated that there were no charges. Janitorial overtime (custodian's fee) was mentioned specifically by 65 respondents, and 17 others mentioned that they were expected to pay all maintenance expenses (Survey B, item 30). A number of typical fees for the use of certain facilities, or for year-long use of buildings or grounds, are cited.

Clearly, while fees and charges represent an area of difficulty to many community recreation directors using school facilities, they are but one part of the total picture, and must be approached in this light.

Guides for Improving School-Community Relationships, with Respect to Use of School Facilities for Recreation

In response to the question (Survey B, item 32), "*What guides or procedures are helpful in meeting such problems constructively?*" replies tended to fall into certain categories suggested earlier by Hutchins in his 1950 report. Five such major guides are presented here, with illustrative statements from the 1962 survey.

Guide No. 1

It is advisable to plan regular conferences with school superintendents and school boards, to achieve constructive mutual planning. Joint board membership, particularly representation of school board members on recreation advisory groups or commissions is also helpful. Through personal contacts and effective public relations, it is essential to "educate" or "sell" school administrators and board members on the value of community recreation. In all conferences, meetings and planning sessions, it is necessary to main-

tain a fully cooperative spirit, and to respect the point of view of school personnel.

We enjoy the best of cooperation between the School Board and the Recreation Commission, with at least three joint meetings a year to develop policies. . . . [Berlin, New Hampshire]

[It is necessary to] . . . put yourself in their place and see their problem. [Dayton, Ohio]

Their understanding of our work is vague [It is necessary to] . . . buttonhole individual school board members and get them to observe recreation programs in progress, and to give them public acknowledgment. [Athens, Georgia]

[There should be] . . . a personal relationship with the Superintendent, business administrator and principals, so they feel free to criticize constructively. [Hopkins, Minnesota]

Joint meetings of School Board and Recreation Commission, in addition to the Superintendent of Schools serving on the Recreation Commission [are desired]. [Atchison, Kansas]

Genuine cooperation and understanding on both sides can overcome most problems. In many cases it is a matter of convincing and educating school people as to the objectives and methods of operation of the recreation service, as it involves the school. [Moorestown, New Jersey]

[It is imperative that] . . . every effort [be made] to protect school's facilities and understand school's viewpoint. [To] meet monthly with school personnel to discuss such details [is necessary]. [Anne Arundel County, Maryland]

Guide No. 2

Based on mutual understanding, it is necessary to have clearly established policies, in the form of written contracts and agreements, to which both parties must subscribe.

[It is necessary to] have written policies established in the use of school facilities [and] have pre-arranged agreements between city and schools as to percentage of contribution [and reciprocal use]. [Birmingham, Michigan]

Reciprocal agreement on use of facilities, equipment and services by governing authorities of school, park and recreation departments [should be made]. [Cedar Rapids, Iowa]

[There should be] cooperative contract with the school district for use of all facilities; understanding of charges for use if any; advance scheduling; qualified and dependable personnel. [*Tucson, Arizona*]

ILLUSTRATIVE AGREEMENTS BETWEEN COMMUNITIES AND SCHOOLS

An illustrative agreement follows, preceded by a joint resolution made by the Livingston, New Jersey, Board of Education and Board of Recreation Commissioners. This is typical of many such contracts in effect throughout the country.

JOINT RESOLUTION BOARD OF EDUCATION-BOARD OF RECREATION COMMISSIONERS (NOW KNOWN AS THE ADVISORY COUNCIL TO DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION AND PARKS), LIVINGSTON, NEW JERSEY

WHEREAS: The Board of Recreation Commissioners and the Board of Education are both public bodies with different spheres of public service and separately govern their properties, and

WHEREAS: it is recognized, both by the Board of Education and the Board of Recreation Commissioners in Livingston, that the development of school plants and recreational areas for joint use is a sound practice;

WHEREAS: certain school facilities are now in use by the Recreation and Parks Department; and certain recreation facilities are in use by the Board of Education;

WHEREAS: the practice of establishing school plants and neighborhood playgrounds for joint use will effect a direct saving to the citizens of Livingston;

THEREFORE: be it resolved that in the interest of better service and greater economy to the community the executive staffs of each board shall study ways and means, develop and recommend plans and policies for the establishment of school and recreational facilities and sites.

August 17, 1953

BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS POLICY LIVINGSTON BOARD OF EDUCATION AND DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION AND PARKS

In order that all school facilities, Park areas, Park-School Sites (buildings, play areas, grounds, driveways, etc.) be fully utilized as well as

community centers, the following revised general policies are recommended, to become effective April 1, 1960:

I. SCHOOL BUILDINGS

The school buildings and facilities shall be made available to the Department of Recreation and Parks as herein provided.

A. No charge shall be made to the Department of Recreation and Parks when using said buildings, for heat, light and general utilities.

B. The Department of Recreation and Parks shall pay for all custodial help necessary during the time said department has use of the buildings or facilities, the rate of which shall be the regular hourly rate of custodial help as prescribed by the Board of Education. (Present rate \$2.00 per hour).

The rate for overtime pay for school custodians on Sunday only, is based on time and one half or \$3.00 per hour.

C. The Department of Recreation and Parks shall be responsible for the property being used, and the supervision of all their programs and activities.

D. All requests for the use of buildings shall be made on the standard application form which is cleared directly through the Board of Education offices. Accordingly, complete schedules will be kept as well as projected in the future where possible.

II. SCHOOLS GROUNDS

The Board of Education shall be responsible for the developing, expanding and general control of all school grounds unless otherwise stated.

Periods

1. School term (September 1 to end of school term).

During this period, it can be assumed that the public school program will be using the grounds the majority of the time during the day. However, all school grounds, play areas and ball diamonds shall be made available to the Recreation and Parks Department for any part of their program during this period so long as it does not interfere with the public school program.

Arrangements for the same by the Recreation Department can be made by filing a request direct to the Board of Education office. No charge shall be made to the Recreation Department for the use of the grounds during this period. The Board of Education will be fully responsible for all repairs, care and maintenance of said grounds with each board taking care of their special needs for their particular program.

2. Summer months (end of school term through August 31).

The Department of Recreation and Parks shall be granted the

privilege of using and having full responsibility of all play areas and outside athletic fields during this period. Said Department of Recreation and Parks will be fully responsible for the maintenance, care and upkeep of the grounds being used for their program during these months. In cases where alterations of grounds or special improvements are necessary for the Recreation program, all changes shall be approved by the Board of Education before same are made by the Recreation and Parks Department. The Recreation Department shall be granted the use of school facilities, such as toilets, storage space etc. as needed during their summer program.

Scheduling and control of said grounds shall be under the direction of the Department of Recreation and Parks. Any other groups or organizations from Livingston desiring school grounds during these months shall apply directly to the Recreation Department for use of the same. Any special, unusual or doubtful applications other than for recreational purposes for use of the grounds during this period shall be cleared through the Board of Education offices.

III. DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION AND PARKS BUILDINGS

The buildings and facilities under the control of the Department of Recreation and Parks shall be made available to the Board of Education as herein provided.

A. No charge shall be made to the Board of Education when using said building, for heat, light and general utilities.

B. The Board of Education shall be responsible for the property being used, and the supervision of all their programs and activities.

C. All requests for the use of buildings shall be made on the standard application form which is cleared directly through the Department of Recreation and Parks offices. Accordingly, complete schedules will be kept as well as projected in the future where possible.

IV. DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION AND PARKS—Outdoor Facilities and Grounds

A. The Department of Recreation and Parks shall be responsible for the developing, expanding and general control of all Township property and facilities under its control unless otherwise stated.

B. The property and facilities shall be made available to the Board of Education at no charge.

C. The Board of Education shall file with the Department of Recreation and Parks a schedule of activities on the appropriate facility.

D. The Board of Education shall be responsible for the property being used, and the supervision of all their programs and activities.

V. GENERAL POLICIES

The Board of Education and the Department of Recreation and Parks recognize the need for coordination of activities. Accordingly, the following is proposed for the mutual benefit of both groups.

The Board of Education would appreciate the cooperation of the Department of Recreation and Parks in performing special work during the summer months as well as on special occasions during the school year, such as mowing lawns, special maintenance work, expansion of play areas, development of athletic fields, etc. Requests made of the Department of Recreation and Parks for maintenance services by the Board of Education will be subject to full compensation at regular rates. All work done or special services rendered, shall be itemized on the standard invoice form and accordingly paid for by check.

In the planning and projecting of physical and recreational facilities for new buildings and grounds or in the remaking of old, the assistance and cooperation of the Advisory Council to the Department of Recreation and Parks and the Board of Education shall be solicited.

Guide No. 3

Recreation authorities, if they are to deserve the respect and cooperation of school authorities, have the obligation to conduct highly effective, fully professional programs, and to (1) carry out strict enforcement of rules and policies; (2) hire fully qualified personnel; (3) maintain thorough, conscientious supervision; and (4) schedule programs and make requests for facilities as early as possible.

We sit down with the physical education staff each year and work out a yearly program of activities jointly. . . . [Branford, Connecticut]

[We rely on] . . . written agreements, close cooperation and mutual trust; adequate supervision. [There is] immediate payment for repair of damage; use of school personnel in recreation program. [Villa Park, Illinois]

First you have to have a sound, educative, wholesome recreation program. The school people will soon give you full usage. [Bossier City, Louisiana]

The greatest aid is a report card the recreation worker fills out. On one side the conditions he finds when he enters school building; the other side on conditions when he leaves the building. [Greenville, Mississippi]

[There is] strict enforcement of all regulations dealing with use of facilities. [Clinton, Iowa]

Recreation leaders should report incidents immediately. The time lag is what makes everyone angry. [Phoenixville, Pennsylvania]

[We have] . . . written agreements, good supervision, written schedule requests and acknowledgements, frequent visits to schools for informal chats with personnel, and a cooperative attitude. [Oconomowoc, Wisconsin]

[We have] hiring of mature, competent, qualified leaders to conduct program activities. . . . [Columbia Heights, Minnesota]

A specific procedure employed by the Oak Ridge, Tennessee, Recreation Department in making use of school facilities (either in its own summer program, or in scheduling community groups) follows (it is similar to procedures followed in many other communities):

(a) The School-System issues to the Recreation Department a blanket permit for each gymnasium. We issue sub-permits to individual groups against the blanket permit, making the collection of rental fees which are turned in to the school finance office each Friday. (Note: community groups pay fees; the Recreation Department has free use).

(b) With each sub-permit we provide an inspection slip.

(c) The user presents the sub-permit to the custodian upon arrival, and jointly fills out the inspection slip upon departure. If there has been no damage the user retains the inspection slip and returns it to the Department of Recreation.

If there has been damage it is noted on the inspection slip which is retained by the custodian who then routes it to the Business Director of the School System. The Business Director contacts the Recreation Department, and immediate contact is made with the group responsible for the damage. Upon acceptance of responsibility for damage the group is notified that a billing will be made by the School System for the cost of repairs.

This system has given the Recreation Department jurisdiction over the scheduling of recreational groups, relieved the School System of scheduling problems and permit writing, caused using groups to realize their responsibilities, and has caused custodians to be aware of damages when they happen. Recreation office and storage space has been provided in three schools built after the war, and in all buildings the School System has provided folding doors which make possible the use of gymnasiums without access to other portions of the building. . . .

Another example of fully professional and conscientious use of school facilities by municipal recreation agencies is found in the following *Program Bulletin* issued by the general supervisor of the Philadelphia Recreation Department to all recreation personnel, in the fall of 1961:

Program Bulletin

**CITY WIDE RECREATION PROGRAM IN THE SCHOOLS
(1961-1962)**

For the ninth consecutive year a recreation program will be conducted in several of the school gymnasias by the Department of Recreation. The success of the recreation program in the schools depends entirely on how well the leadership carries out its duties. An intelligent, enthusiastic and energetic leadership will consider all factors necessary for a successful program. Some of the specific factors to be considered are as follows:

LEADERSHIP: As stated above, the success of the recreation program in the schools will depend upon the leadership. The leader-in-charge is responsible for the program going on in the school and also for the efficiency of his assistants. Recreation Leader II will be responsible for the total operation and the District Supervisor will delegate orders through this flow of command. The District Supervisor is responsible for all the schools in his district.

The leader-in-charge shall plan and organize the program. He should meet with representatives of neighborhood groups to determine the desires of the community. He will submit plans to Recreation Leader II and District Supervisor for approval.

After the school program has been organized and activities started, he is to constantly study ways and means of improving and extending the program.

The leader-in-charge is the representative of the Department of Recreation and is responsible for carrying out the rules and regulations of both the Department and the Board of Education.

COOPERATION & RELATIONSHIPS: The leader-in-charge and his assistants should be ready at all times to cooperate with one another for the best interest of the school recreation program. Lack of harmony is destructive and cannot be tolerated. The viewpoints of the principal of the school, physical education instructor, janitor and watchman, should always be respected and every effort made to gain and retain their active support. They should be informed of all changes in advance or adjustments in program.

SUPERVISION & DISCIPLINE: Important factors for the success of the school recreation program will be the conduct and attitude of the patrons. Insist upon a respectful attitude by all persons using the facilities. Rules and regulations for the operation of the center are to be observed at all times.

Rowdyism of any kind must not be tolerated. Intelligent discipline should be enforced when rules are violated.

Destruction of property is *very serious*. Vigilant supervision must be provided by the leadership during the hours the school program is being operated.

Guide No. 4

In situations where difficulty is encountered on a lower level of authority, it is best to deal directly with the superintendent of schools and the school board, and to expect that their policies will be implemented by other echelons of school personnel.

Go right to the top, the Board of Education. Don't bother with in-betweens who seem to lack power and initiative to make decisions. Have never been denied by the Board. [Wilton, Connecticut]

[We are] . . . dealing directly through the Superintendent of School's office . . . ; problems involving the schools and the recreation department have been kept to a minimum. [Lindsay, California]

[There is] close coordination with top administration in Board of Education. [Philadelphia, Pennsylvania]

Guide No. 5

Whenever it is administratively feasible to do so, qualified school personnel should be employed in the recreation program in leadership or administrative capacities. This is a means of ensuring good relationships and strengthening communication between the two agencies.

. . . In some cases it is necessary to hire school teachers to have full usage of school facilities and keep principals and administrators at ease. . . . [Moline, Illinois]

. . . It is mandatory that in order to use school facilities we must employ school personnel. . . . [San Antonio, Texas]

Hutchins, in particular, stressed the need to employ school teachers in this fashion, in his 1950 study. While this is viewed by some municipal recreation administrators as a form of coercion, it is realistically extremely helpful in maintaining effective cooperative relationships. Obviously, it is based on the assumption that the school personnel under consideration are as competent to do the recreation job as other part-time workers who might be hired. In the view of a number of administrators of extensive programs of school-sponsored recreation, they *do* have useful skills and allied professional preparation and, with adequate supervision and in-service training, acquit themselves well in such situations.

The most essential element in the relationship between school boards and community recreation departments that seek to use their facilities, is, of course, a sense of common purpose and whole-hearted cooperation. This is illustrated in the following statements, from the municipal recreation directors of Winston-Salem, North Carolina, and Racine, Wisconsin:

[It is necessary to develop] . . . a thorough understanding of each other's philosophies of community recreation and school teaching. . . . Through conferences and personal visits, a feeling of greater friendship and coordination and cooperation can be reached. In understanding each other's problems, each can develop a mutual understanding of helpfulness in contributing toward human happiness in the community. [Winston-Salem]

In general, public recreation will function properly in any community under a separate commission, schools or parks, depending entirely upon local cooperation. Without full cooperation among all boards, recreation cannot succeed. Park Boards are primarily concerned with maintenance and construction; school boards with public education; whereas recreation commissions or boards have but one function, that of public recreation, which is big enough to warrant a separate department. Many Wisconsin cities have excellent school recreation departments and park recreation departments. Where they are successful, it is because of cooperation of other departments in the city. Where they are not successful, it is because of lack of cooperation between their own board and the other boards. Departmental cooperation is the *big* word in any public recreation program. [Racine, Wisconsin]

Other Areas of Cooperation

Obviously, while it is essential that community recreation departments have the fullest possible use of school-owned facilities, and while the guides described above contribute to this end, there are other levels of cooperative activity which extend beyond this relationship. These include:

1. The joint planning of school-owned facilities by school and municipal recreation authorities (either recreation or park boards or commissions, or combined park and recreation authorities). This applies both to construction of new buildings and outdoor areas and to additions to existing structures. In some cases it involves also the construction of municipally-owned recreation areas immediately adjacent to schools, which are designed to be suitable for joint use.

2. A total cooperative relationship, involving not only the joint planning, construction and use of facilities, but also a thorough coordination of program services and other forms of mutual assistance. Such a relationship falls just short of actual co-sponsorship, and represents a concerted attempt to bring all community agencies to bear in an integrated way, upon problems of leisure education and the provision of organized recreation programs.

Joint Planning of Recreational Facilities

In a 1953 publication of the National Recreation Association, *School-City Cooperation in the Planning of Recreation Areas and Facilities*,* George Butler points out that, traditionally, American school, park and playground sites, and structures have been purchased, developed, and operated separately and with little relationship to each other. A study of the linkage between city planning and school plant planning (involving an analysis of 100 city plans published between 1905 and 1933) revealed that such cooperative planning was rare during this period. Ten of 25 books on city planning made no mention of schools at all, and only five

of 65 school building surveys showed cooperation between school and city planning authorities. Butler comments that this has resulted in a failure to provide adequately for community use in planning new school facilities, or to give recreation authorities an opportunity to review school plans. All this, despite the fact that there was, as early as 1912, a recognition of the need for such consultation and special planning.

"Buildings are not planned for recreation use" was a comment frequently made in the 1950 Hutchins study of the recreational use of school facilities.

During the 1940's and early 1950's, however, Butler points out that there was an increasing recognition of the need for joint consultation and planning of school-recreation facilities in communities throughout the country. He describes a plan for building 18 new schools in Grand Rapids, Michigan, in each of which indoor and adjoining park facilities were to be developed for the fullest and most efficient community use in recreational activity. In these, the school architects worked in extremely close cooperation with the design office of the park department, in order to achieve the following:

The location of the structure on the site is so planned that the maximum use of playground and recreation facilities is obtained. The layout of the school is so designed that toilet facilities, arts and crafts rooms, play leaders' rooms, park storage rooms and so forth are directly accessible from the outside and in proper relation to the projected recreational facilities. These special considerations add very little to the cost of new structures, but pay enormous dividends in the proper operation of the park-school.

Butler cites several examples of cooperation in the building of facilities between school and park authorities in Minneapolis in recent years. These have been supported by a resolution adopted in 1948, setting forth policy for future projects:

WHEREAS, The Board of Education and the Board of Park Commissioners of the City of Minneapolis are both public bodies with different spheres of public service and separately govern their properties, and

WHEREAS, The accomplishment of such joint undertaking requires the concurrent adoption of a policy by each Board which would direct the staff of their department in their efforts to develop and operate such integrated units,

NOW, therefore, be it concurrently *Resolved*, that the following statement of policy shall govern the actions of the two departments in the execution of their plan of cooperation for joint planning and separate use of combined properties as follows:

That the combined facilities are a single community asset, the operation of which should be so conducted as to provide maximum community benefits which can be derived through such joint use. The facilities are to be operated jointly or separately, in whole or in part, in accordance with details as agreed upon by the executive staffs or their representatives, keeping in mind that the foremost function of such operation would be the expenditure of available public funds in such a way as to provide the greatest service to the community.⁷

A similar resolution was adopted in 1950 in Austin, Texas, by the city council and Board of Education:

WHEREAS, it is the purpose of the City of Austin through the Recreation Department to develop, operate and maintain community recreation facilities;

WHEREAS, it is the policy of the Austin Public Schools to develop, construct, maintain, and operate school plants offering facilities for community use;

WHEREAS, it is recognized, both by educational recreational agencies through the country, that the development of school plants and recreational areas for joint use is a sound practice;

WHEREAS, the City Planning Commission firmly believes in the policy of establishing neighborhood playgrounds adjacent to public school sites;

WHEREAS, certain school facilities are now in use by the Recreation Department;

WHEREAS, recreation and education are closely parallel in many purposes, objectives, and programs;

WHEREAS, the practice of establishing school plants and neighborhood playgrounds for joint use will offer a direct saving to the citizens of Austin;

THEREFORE be it *Resolved*, That in the interest of better service and greater economy to the community, a joint committee of the staff personnel between the City of Austin and the Austin Public Schools be appointed and authorized to study ways and means, develop and recommend plans and policies for the establishment of school and recreational facilities and sites for joint use.⁸

To illustrate the value of such cooperative planning, the superintendent of parks in Seattle, Washington, commented:

As an indication of the possible economies that may be effected through this joint school-park planning, financing, operating, and maintaining of integrated facilities, it costs the park department approximately \$150,000 a year to maintain and operate nine of its fieldhouses, where as we pay to the school district only \$15,000 per year for the use of nine comparable facilities. These figures do not include the supervision of activities, which is the same in both instances. In addition, of course, the taxpayer is saved from capital expenditures that would total millions of dollars, since our Class A fieldhouses now cost more than \$350,000 to construct, whereas our participation in a properly designed school facility will range from \$50,000 to \$100,000.

Butler also cites other examples of effective park-school planning and building of facilities in New York City; Denver, Colorado; Norfolk, Virginia; Omaha, Nebraska; Detroit, Michigan; Oakland, California; and a number of other communities, large and small, throughout the United States.

In Washington, D. C., the superintendent of the district recreation department writes: "The planning and design of school buildings is brought before a coordinating committee to insure effective joint use. Special facilities are included in new school buildings for community use."

The Park-School Concept in County Recreation Programs

An important trend within recent years has been the extent to which county authorities have expanded their recreation and park services. To illustrate, in 1950, the county agencies reporting to the National Recreation Association yearbook controlled 933 parks totalling over 213,000 acres. In 1960, they reported 2,610 parks with nearly 431,000 acres. In 1950, they employed some 3,000 executives and recreation leaders (not including maintenance and other nonleadership personnel). By 1960, the figure had grown to over 7,400. Over the same period, the amount spent for current operations climbed from over \$18 million to nearly \$57 million, a rise of 213 percent.⁹ A number of outstanding county recreation programs have been described by Prendergast and others in Essex County, New Jersey; Cook County, Illinois; East Baton Rouge

Parish, Louisiana; and, as an outstanding example, Baltimore County, Maryland.

A problem peculiar to county recreation and park agencies is that, while they usually control and operate a variety of sports facilities, parks, playgrounds, playfields, aquatic areas, or other natural recreation sites, they frequently lack indoor centers or other facilities for programs in local communities. When each town or city within such a county assumes responsibility for its own local programing, this does not represent a problem. However, when the county takes on this function as well, it must develop a network of local facilities for community or neighborhood programing. This is the case in Baltimore County.

Here, the department of recreation and parks, working through 48 affiliated recreation councils in six major areas supervised by full-time county superintendents, operates a program serving over 110,000 participants, with over two and one-half million in total attendance.

Within the 48 affiliated recreation councils (which supplement the county's annual appropriation of \$933,000 with approximately \$451,000 which they raise themselves) there is a heavy reliance on the use of dual-use centers, which are designed, built, and maintained by the county department of education. These are of two types:

1. *Neighborhood School-Recreation Center.* These are customarily 24-room elementary school buildings, which have been architecturally designed to make accessible such facilities as cafeterias, multi-purpose rooms, music rooms, libraries, and other indoor facilities important to neighborhood recreation programs serving between 3,000 and 7,000 people within walking distance. The standard 20-acre site provides athletic fields, courts, playgrounds, and wooded areas. Neighborhood school-recreation centers serve to meet recreation needs for all ages, after school, on weekends, and during vacation periods. In 1961, Baltimore County had 79 such centers in operation.

2. *Community School-Recreation Center.* These are built around junior or senior high schools and are located to serve between 12,000 and 40,000 people living within a one-mile radius. Twenty-eight such centers were in use during 1961. As in the neighborhood centers, they are expressly designed for multipurpose use.

In these centers, preliminary planning has included changing multipurpose rooms in size and shape to make them adaptable as neighborhood gymnasiums, providing outside access to toilets, storage areas for recreation equipment, offices for center directors, and the equipping of adult meeting rooms. It is believed that the incorporation of these recreational features at the planning stage has resulted in extremely economical building costs, and has virtually eliminated the need for the construction of separate recreation buildings in Baltimore County.

OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE OF PLANTS AND FACILITIES

This function is jointly performed by the department of recreation and parks and the board of education. Outdoor facilities at junior and senior high school-recreation centers are maintained by board of education crews. Those at elementary school-recreation centers and separate parks are maintained by recreation and park crews. With respect to damage of school property, arrangements have been made with the plant operation division of the board of education to have property or equipment repaired or replaced immediately, and billed to the department of recreation and parks for payment.

CUSTODIAL SERVICES FOR RECREATION PROGRAMS

Custodial services are provided by the schools to assure clean facilities, protection of the property, and readiness for school use. The area recreation superintendent schedules recreation programs with the principal of each school involved, and he in turn arranges for custodial services which are paid for by the department of recreation and parks.

As in the programs of *school-sponsored* recreation that were described in earlier chapters, the Baltimore County dual-use system is based on a conviction that education and recreation are *closely allied disciplines*, with important values and outcomes in common. In a brochure describing the basic facility plan, the following statements are made:

The prime function of recreation as distinguished from education proper is to provide satisfying opportunities for the individual to make

more extensive and effective application, in leisure time, of the knowledge acquired in . . . subjects . . . which he or she has studied in school. This is done through games and sports, social recreation, outdoor activities, the arts, informal education and special day programs. Thus recreation requires many facilities of the same types as those required by education. The basic problem involved in planning a School-Recreation Center is to design the various facilities so that there shall be ample but nonduplicating provision for the conduct of both programs. . . .

The School-Recreation Center . . . serves as a focal point for education, recreation and all kinds of related activities for the people in the area it is designed to serve. It should be planned to meet the most modern standards for both school and recreation functions. It is economical because it serves two important public programs with only one plant. Thus, through careful planning . . . taxpayers . . . get almost twice the value for their tax dollar as compared with the cost of providing two comparable separate facilities. It is good business. It is good for education. It is good for recreation and parks.

City-Wide Recreation Coordination

As Butler has pointed out, there has been insufficient cooperation in the past between municipal boards of education and recreation or recreation and park departments. In the congested metropolises and sprawling suburbs that have been mushrooming across the face of the United States, this has become a matter of intense concern to all those involved in municipal government. In a 1955 issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Violich carefully examines the public school in its relation to other community services, and stresses the need for large-scale, long-term city planning processes that provide meaningfully for community education and recreation services. He writes:

When we add subdivision to subdivision, school site to school site, we are in effect building a new city. Yet the resultant product is generally lacking in the element most characteristic of a city; that is, a focal point at which may be obtained a variety of services unavailable in rural areas. . . . We are building, not planning, new cities, and they are formless. We are neglecting opportunities to use the school itself

as the core of the central area of human activities, relating to it other facilities such as recreation, welfare . . . libraries . . . civic buildings . . . parks, etc. . . .¹⁰

Violich points out that in municipalities throughout the country, most important public services are under the control of the city council or manager, and are thus coordinated to ensure efficient operation and to avoid overlap and duplication. This is not true of public schools which, although they represent vital community needs that should be closely related to other governmental functions (streets, fire and police protection, health services, and so on), are outside this framework, under comparatively autonomous jurisdiction. He comments that while we in the United States have made great progress in building school plants, we have not yet operated creatively in terms of locating the schools in relation to the city as a whole, or in having them become vital factors in the network of community services.

In accepting this view, it is essential that schools be brought more fully into cooperative relationships with other private, semi-public, and public agencies and departments, in the formulation of master plans of land use, residential development, and provision of neighborhood and city-wide services. This is true not only in our proliferating suburbs but also in the largest cities which suffer in many cases from "urban blight." In a number of these cities, healthy middle-class residential areas have developed rapidly into slums. There have been widespread migrations, including as a common pattern the flight of the upper socioeconomic classes to the suburbs and the development of minority-group ghettos, with attendant social problems. In many cases, the community centers, neighborhood houses, or "Y's" that formerly served the population in our large cities have either moved out to the suburbs, or are no longer geared to meet the recreational and social needs of the present residents. Lutzin writes:

As family after family pulled itself up the economic and social ladder, the movement from the old established neighborhoods became a mass migration to the suburbs and new sections of the cities. The physical vacuum left behind was soon filled with new immigrants, the inept, the indigent. However, the social vacuum remains, sizzling and sputtering with spasmodic, volcano-like eruptions of violence, crime and gang warfare. . . . unabated by the many human services, including recreation, which proliferate in other sections of the community.¹¹

Clearly, there is a crucial need to mobilize *all* municipal resources, public and voluntary, to provide needed social services within such metropolitan areas. It is all too easy, Lutzin suggests, to provide attractive and successful activities in well-to-do communities, for families that are prepared to pay not only taxes but also special fees for cooperatively sponsored swimming pools under public auspices, self-supporting Little Leagues, art classes, dance groups, and day camp programs. It is far more difficult to serve the needs of the delinquent or socially maladjusted child or young adult, whose need for constructive recreational activity is great, but who frequently is hostile to organized programing and who often receives but a shallow token of service. Lutzin suggests that this may be one reason why such a large percentage of inmates in our correction and rehabilitation institutions have no recreation skills.

Within this framework, each community agency must play a part. No municipal department has as wide a network of indoor facilities, potential leadership, and contact with children and youth as the public school systems in our large cities today. Thus, no over-all program of recreation service can be fully successful in a large metropolitan area without the wholehearted cooperation of the schools—whether they provide their own programs of recreation or coordinate their efforts with other municipal agencies.

As an example of effective city planning and multiagency coordination in the recreation field, Philadelphia is outstanding. There, under a 1919 City Charter, recreation was a subsidiary function of the department of welfare until, in an annotation to a 1951 Home Rule Charter, it was made the function of a separate department, on a par with other important municipal services. At the same time, it was recognized that other bodies, such as the Fairmount Park Commission and Board of Education, were involved in recreation. Obviously, liaison was needed to insure that maximum utilization be made of all community resources, and to minimize the possibility of overlapping services and facilities.

Thus, a recreation coordination board was formed in 1952, composed of three members of the Fairmount Park Commission, three members of the board of education, and three citizens at large. It is the task of this board to coordinate recreation programs administered by various bodies of the city government, and to consult with, advise, and assist private organizations concerned with

recreation. As an example of its influence, when the board first came into existence, in 1952, there were indoor recreational programs in six schools. By 1958, there were 32 schools, and, by 1962, 42 schools in which the department of recreation conducts school recreation programs.

Under the prevailing arrangement, the department of recreation supplies the leadership, supplies, and equipment, and the board of public education supplies the heat, light, janitorial services, and facility. The staffs of both the recreational department and the Board of Education have resolved through conferences any difficulties that have arisen from multiple use of the same facility.

As an outcome of the continuous process of city planning, and the effective efforts of the recreation coordination board, the general supervisor of the department of recreation in Philadelphia writes that ". . . we in Philadelphia have progressed beyond the point of being selfish about the facilities and care greatly for the total use by all the community and the tax dollar."¹²

Conclusion

The examples cited in this chapter have been many and varied. They demonstrate clearly that it is possible to establish *public need* as the primary concern of all governmental agencies in the social service field. Based on this, it is essential that the public schools and all other appropriate governmental agencies be linked in a creative effort to provide the highest level of public recreation service, at the lowest possible cost to the taxpayer. Whether the school's role be that of sponsor or co-sponsor, or cooperating agency, no school superintendent, principal, or school board member can afford to ignore this urgent fact.

The leisure age has come rapidly upon us.

This single aspect of life—unobligated time—looms increasingly, as a challenge, a threat, and an opportunity. Inevitably, the public schools of the nation must soon come more fully to grips with a problem that they first recognized over 50 years ago. Today, they have the inescapable responsibility to provide meaningful leisure education, and to become enthusiastically and effectively

involved in the support of outstanding programs of public recreation service.

References

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3. George D. Butler (ed.), *1961 Parks and Recreation Yearbook* (New York: National Recreation Association, 1961), p. 27.
4. *The Use of Public School Facilities by Public Recreation Departments in Westchester County, New York* (White Plains, N. Y.: Westchester County Recreation Commission, 1959).
5. Alice Whipple, *Report on Use of School Facilities for Recreation Activities Other than Intramural Programs, in 76 Cities of 100,000 Through 900,000 Population* (Des Moines, Iowa: Council of Social Agencies, 1961).
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7. *Ibid.*, p. 3.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 4.
9. Joseph Prendergast, "The County's Role in Recreation," *Recreation Magazine*, December, 1962, pp. 512-513.
10. Francis Violich, "The City Planning Process: A Framework for Community Education," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1955, pp. 8-15.
11. Sidney Lutzin, "The Squeeze-Out," *Recreation Magazine*, October, 1962, p. 390.
12. Letter from general supervisor of the city of Philadelphia Recreation Department, May 4, 1962.

Survey of Recreation Educators

THE QUESTIONNAIRE WAS sent to 100 individuals who have been designated as responsible for teaching recreation education courses, or as advisors for recreation major or minor curricula in American colleges and universities. Their names were taken chiefly from a list compiled and kept up to date by the National Recreation Association. Several other names were taken from conference journals and professional periodicals and added to this list.

Completed questionnaires were received from:

Mid-South (MS)	5	Pacific Northwest (PNW)	4
Southeast (SE)	5	Pacific Southwest (PSW)	11
Great Lakes (GL)	11	Southwest (SW)	2
Middle Atlantic (MA)	4	New England (NE)	3
Midwest (MW)	6	Total	51

Forty-five of those responding identified themselves as holding professorial rank (assistant, associate, or full), with such specific affiliations as recreation (and/or health, physical education, and recreation) and, in a few cases, designation as professor of education or social work. Three were described as coordinators of campus recreation. Nineteen indicated that they were chairmen of recreation curricula at their institutions. They classified their programs as follows:

Offering major, minor, and graduate programs	20
Major programs only	10
Major and minor	6
Major and graduate	5
Minor programs only	3
Graduate only	1
None (although recreation courses offered in department)	5

 50

Note: Whenever the total number of responses is less than the number of returned questionnaires, it will be understood that not all individuals replied to the particular question.

1. *The 1961 parks and recreation yearbook of the National Recreation Association reveals that, while only a small percentage of community recreation programs are sponsored by school systems, a much higher proportion makes use of school facilities. Does this accurately reflect practices in your area?*

Yes 45

No 4

2. *Can you cite an example of an effective community recreation program in your area, which is sponsored by the public schools?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		1	5	2	5	2	11	2	1	29
No	5	3	2	2		1			2	15
Qualified		1	3		1	1				6

3. *Does it serve all age groups with a year-round program?*

Yes 18

No 6

Qualified 4

4. *Does it serve chiefly children?*

Yes 14

No 10

Qualified 1

5. *In general, what is your view on having the schools sponsor or co-sponsor community recreation programs?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Strongly in favor	1	1	5		1	1	5			14
Moderately in favor	1		1	1	3		2	2	3	14
Mildly negative	1		1	1		1	1			5
Strongly negative	2		2	1						5
Depends on situation		1			1	1				3
Favor "co-sponsorship" only		1	1	1	1		2			7

6. *Specifically, what are the advantages in such an arrangement?*

Maximum use of facilities and personnel; avoids expensive duplication; economy in planning and development of facilities. . 32

Recreation benefits from the status of the schools; people are more likely to support education than recreation; salaries are higher	7
Teachers are available for recreation work	3
Schools are centrally located, have contacts with children	2
This makes recreation possible in some communities that might otherwise not sponsor it ..	1
Schools become the focal point of community life	1
Recreation may be tied in with education for leisure	1
Education budget may absorb recreation costs ..	1
See no advantages at all in this ..	4

7. *What are the disadvantages?*

The prime concern of the schools is education; recreation would be a "second-class" function; it would be treated as secondary	13
Problems of coordination; administrative problems of equipment, supplies, etc.; "too many hands in pie" ..	6
Conflict or disagreement in basic philosophy ..	5
Financial problems; this would raise the educational proportion of the municipal budget too high and taxpayers would object ..	5
This would result in a narrow program with the wrong emphasis; too formal ..	5
This would increase the maintenance problem for schools; cause difficulties with custodians; damage to facilities ..	3
The school does not have adequate facilities for a comprehensive program; they would not be available at the needed times ..	3
Teachers, unqualified in recreation, would lead or direct the program ..	2
Dirty politics and favoritism would enter into personnel selection	1
The job is too big for the schools (the assumption is that this means, in addition to their regular responsibilities) ..	1
Even if the school board accepted the responsibility, principals might not ..	1
The public schools would need to provide for parochial school children as well ..	1
No disadvantages, provided that the school board and city council cooperate, and facilities are available ..	7

8. *In what sort of community, or under what circumstances, is it most appropriate for public school systems to take on major responsibility for community recreation programs?*

Small communities or sparsely populated areas ..	20
Communities with small budgets and lack of leadership ..	8
Where the school building is the only public facility available or	

- the school is the only organized governmental unit that is connected directly to the district, as in an unincorporated area . . . 8
- Where services are not being provided; where the government refuses to allot funds for a separate program; where no one else will do it . . . 6
- In any community, provided that the board of education and superintendent of schools are alert to their responsibilities and accept recreation as a primary function . . . 2
- Where the school is the focal point of community life; in the community-centered school . . . 2
- Where space, other than school property, is unavailable or limited 1
- Where large outdoor regional facilities are available (presumably to supplement limited school facilities) . . . 1
- If there is no legal basis for a recreation department, this might be a stop-gap procedure . . . 1
- In very wealthy, progressive communities, where they are prepared to support recreation adequately . . . 1
- Never; it is appropriate in no community, if the legal authority is available to operate otherwise . . . 3
9. *In what sort of communities is it not appropriate?*
- In large or metropolitan areas or cities; any community larger than 10,000 (several figures are suggested) especially if it has a park system . . . 14
- Where the job is being done by a recreation department; where recreation services are already available; or, if the community is able to support, through taxes, a full separate system . . 10
- This depends on the attitude of the school board and taxpayers toward recreation services; it is inappropriate where the philosophy of recreation and education of the people in authority, are in conflict . . . 3
- In any community interested in a real recreation program . . 1
- Where enabling legislation allows municipalities or counties to perform the recreation function . . . 1
- Where school districts are not contiguous to the population to be served . . . 1
- In any area where the population is heavily adult . . . 1
- It is never appropriate; it is the school's job to educate; recreation's to recreate . . . 1
- There are few communities where it would be inappropriate; the schools should always be involved, although not necessarily as the major agency . . . 1
- In no community is it inappropriate . . . 4

10. *What kinds of recreation services are schools well-equipped to offer? (Note: This was answered by some in terms of activities, by others in terms of groups served)*
- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Sports events and athletic activities | 15 |
| Any services which help educate for leisure; anything that teaches leisure-time skills, provided facilities are available .. | 11 |
| Needs of school-age children and youth .. | 6 |
| Music activities, dramatic activities, adult education, and school dances | 5 |
| Clubs | 4 |
| All sorts of sociocultural-creative activities | 3 |
11. *What needs are they not well-equipped to meet?*
- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Outdoor sports and activities: skating, golf, boating, skiing, swimming, picnics, camping activities; large land areas (parks and beaches) .. | 12 |
| Adult groups; any age but young children | 9 |
| Special groups that meet during the day: handicapped, senior citizens, etc. | 7 |
| They are not well equipped to organize and maintain a broad, public, tax-supported program for all ages, year-round, with varied program | 4 |
| Programs requiring year-round use | 2 |
| Activities requiring informal leadership | 2 |
12. *Within your experience, when schools sponsor recreation programs, what kinds of problems tend to appear?*
- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Program is limited in scope, hours, those served; it tends to be a summertime, child-centered, overly sports-minded schedule .. | 25 |
| Leadership comes too frequently from part-time teachers with half-hearted skills and interest; community becomes satisfied with inadequate leadership; they turn to physical education staff for direction | 10 |
| Problems of limited budget; cuts in recreation under financial pressure | 8 |
| Program is too formal, rigid, educative, classroom-oriented .. | 7 |
| Conflict in use of facilities; teachers resent use of classrooms for recreation purposes; care and maintenance of facilities and equipment is a problem; nonschool facilities are not used .. | 6 |
| Citizens are not involved in planning and operation; failure to involve community groups in recreation program | 3 |
| Teachers resent an extension of the school day | 1 |
| Poor public relations program for recreation | 1 |

Park areas are not developed	1
The goals and purposes of recreation and education are different	1

13. *When the school does not sponsor the program, but assists either through granting funds or the use of indoor or outdoor facilities, what kinds of problems appear?*

Dissension over use of facilities; scheduling conflicts; reluctance to grant permits; use limited to certain seasons; difficulties over custodial charges; arbitrary cancellations	9
Misuse and damage to facilities	8
General unwillingness of principals and janitors to cooperate; poor relationships	6
Over-all problems of coordination and communication	4
Poor supervision on part of recreation personnel	2
Questions of liability: legal responsibility and insurance coverage	2
Conflict in basic objectives: recreation and education	2
Lack of confidence on part of school district's staff in other agency's ability	1
Noncredentialed employees are not given status	1
Obligation to hire school people, even when not qualified	1

14. *What guides or administrative arrangements are helpful in solving these problems?*

Board membership (ex officio) for recreation director on board of education and education representative on recreation commission; joint boards and committees, including representatives of both groups; joint planning and reciprocal services; conference on personnel relationships	13
Clearly established and mutually agreed-on guiding principles and policies, stated in writing with formal contracts; directives throughout all echelons of school system governing recreation relationship	10
School people must accept principle of multiple use and recognize value of recreation; good personal relationships between recreation personnel and educators; periodic meetings	6
Hire good outside director (professional recreation administrator)	4
Equivalent standards and equal pay scales between educators and recreation workers	1
Better supervision of recreation activities	1
None seem wholly satisfactory	1

15. Recognizing that the joint use of facilities often creates problems, can you cite an example, in your area, where recreation professionals joined in the planning of new school buildings or facilities?

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	3	1	6	3	2	4	7			26
No	2	1	1		2		4	1	1	12
Qualified		1								1

Among the communities cited were the following:

Flint, Mich.	Santa Monica, Calif.	San Jose, Calif.
Ft. Wayne, Ind.	Detroit, Mich.	Wasatch, Utah
Charlotte, N.C.	South Bend, Ind.	Milwaukee, Wis.
Lexington County, Ky.	Durham, N.C.	Winston-Salem, N.C.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Baltimore County, Md.	St. Louis, Mo.
Snohomish County, Wash.	Seattle, Wash.	Baltimore, Md.
Portland, Ore.		Tacoma, Wash.
Santa Clara, Calif.	Corvallis, Ore.	Eugene, Ore.
		Sunnyvale, Calif.
		Pasadena, Calif.

16. In your judgment, do school administrators in your area view the function of providing students with leisure-time skills and attitudes as an important task of education?

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	1	1	3		1	3	4		1	13
No		2	5	1			6	2	1	17
Qualified	4	2	3	2	4	1	1		1	18

Among the "Qualified" answers were "to a limited degree"; "a responsibility, but not an exceedingly important one"; "the lower level does, but not the policy makers"; "they agree in theory but not in practice because of other pressures." Five individuals specifically stated: "they pay lip-service only to this principle."

17. If so, how do they achieve this goal?

Varied examples were given, chiefly having to do with offering a "broad curriculum and co-curriculum," stressing such carry-over activities as music, drama, art, sports, and interest groups. Cooperation of the school with the municipal recreation department, and the concern of the P.T.A. and faculty with the sociorecreative needs of youth were mentioned.

18. How might they do a better job in this respect?

Open their minds, review own objectives, really accept their responsibility with respect to leisure education; better under-

- stand the need for recreation and leisure; learn importance of recreation in fully integrated person 13
- Educate teachers to accept this goal of education; place more emphasis on leisure skills, with in-service and pre-service courses that deal with essential values and techniques of leisure education 4
- More emphasis on extracurricular activities; more budget and time allotted to education for leisure; program should be broader 4
- Recreation people must provide better programs 1
- Carry out student interest surveys through home and P.T.A. assistance 1
- Hire a specialist, in a special position, for this purpose 1
- This will probably not happen unless the national value system starts to value leisure in modern life 1
19. *Studies have shown comparatively little carry-over from school physical education to the voluntarily chosen leisure-time pursuits of students. How might this situation be improved, since this is an accepted goal of physical education?*
- Not enough carry-over activities are taught; excessive attention to mass activities, team sports, competitive high school athletics. More individual or dual sports (golf, swimming, tennis, etc.) are needed. More co-recreational activities, more emphasis on activities for the unskilled 27
- Develop not just skills, but attitudes favorable to leisure-time participation; provide opportunity to use facility in free time; expand outside opportunities. Identify interests early and develop them 6
- Relate more to community situation; cooperate with community agencies; develop stronger link between physical education and recreation 3
- Require recreation courses in college for physical education majors; firm up standards so we don't continue to graduate unqualified physical education and recreation leaders 2
20. *Can you suggest ways of approaching other areas of the curriculum so as to develop students' recreational attitudes and skills?*
- Stress possible uses of academic experiences as leisure activity and hobby interests. All creative arts provide education for leisure. Courses such as art, music, drama, even biology and chemistry, have leisure implications, as well as academic and vocational 5
- Teachers should serve as examples and should study leisure

interests; there is a need for in-service training by professional recreators; in teacher preparation, classroom teachers should be encouraged to take recreation courses	3
More informal student clubs; provide after-school club activities	3
More school camping; outdoor education related to academic subjects	2
Problem is that so many curricula are subject to heavy academic pressures today; limit leisure emphasis but develop real skill in a few interests	1
Provide block of time to allow for recreation pursuits in school day	1
Assign a coordinator to help plan cooperation	1

21. *Do you feel that secondary school counselors and guidance personnel are doing an adequate job of informing students about the possibilities for professional careers in recreation, and the opportunities for college training in the field?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes						1				1
No	2	5	8	4	4	3	7	1	2	39
Qualified			2				2	1		5
They do not recognize recreation as a separate, professional career field, requiring formal preparation; lack adequate personal understanding of the field; tend to include it with physical education										10
It is partly the fault of the profession; we are doing a poor job . . .										5

Note: Two other questions were asked with respect to recruitment by the profession. Since, however, they were somewhat extraneous to the main concern of the study, they are not reported on here.

*Survey of Municipal Recreation**Directors*

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WAS sent to 500 directors or superintendents of municipal recreation departments or commissions, or park and recreation departments. The communities were drawn from the National Recreation Association's 1961 *Parks and Recreation Yearbook*. The sampling was made on a random basis, with two exceptions: (1) recreation programs that were specifically listed as sponsored by school boards or districts, or co-sponsored, were excluded, since they form the basis of another survey; and (2) a slightly disproportionate number of communities in small or rural states which have small numbers of recreation departments were sent questionnaires, in order to insure a return from these states. No other stratification was carried out.

Completed questionnaires were received from:

<i>Mid-South</i>		<i>Mid-Atlantic</i>		<i>Pacific Southwest</i>	
Kentucky	3	Delaware	1	Arizona	4
North Carolina	4	District of Col.	1	California	16
Tennessee	3	Maryland	4	Hawaii	1
Virginia	2	New Jersey	15	Nevada	1
West Virginia	1	New York	22	Utah	2
		Pennsylvania	15		
	—		—		—
	13		58		24
<i>Southeast</i>		<i>Midwest</i>		<i>Southwest</i>	
Mississippi	3	Colorado	5	Arkansas	1
Alabama	2	Iowa	5	Louisiana	2
Georgia	4	Kansas	7	New Mexico	1
South Carolina	7	Missouri	1	Oklahoma	2
Florida	7	Nebraska	1	Texas	7

<i>Southeast</i>		<i>Midwest</i>		<i>Southwest</i>	
		North Dakota	3		
		South Dakota	1		
		Wyoming	1		
	<hr/>		<hr/>		<hr/>
	23		24		13
<i>Great Lakes</i>		<i>Pacific Northwest</i>		<i>New England</i>	
Illinois	7	Alaska	1	Connecticut	11
Indiana	5	Idaho	1	Maine	4
Michigan	10	Montana	7	Massachusetts	6
Minnesota	7	Oregon	7	New Hampshire	4
Ohio	4	Washington	4	Rhode Island	1
Wisconsin	4	Canada	1	Vermont	1
	<hr/>		<hr/>		<hr/>
	37		24		27
Total.....					240

Classification of responding departments:

Municipal recreation department, board, or commission	127
Parks and recreation department	80
Recreation and parks	13
County-city or county recreation department	5
Department of health, physical education, and recreation in school system	3
Department of parks	2
Municipal-school joint program	2
Recreation association	2
Welfare department	1

Note: Although all recreation departments that were sent this survey had been classified as municipal programs, five respondents described themselves as school-affiliated. They differed from many other respondents in the municipal group only in their specific titles, and were tallied therefore in this group.

Population of Communities Responding

	<i>MS</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>GL</i>	<i>MA</i>	<i>MIW</i>	<i>PNW</i>	<i>PSW</i>	<i>SIV</i>	<i>NE</i>	<i>Totals</i>
0—999				3						3
1,000—4,999		1	2	1	1	1	1		1	8
5,000—9,999		1		5	1	1	1	1	1	11
10,000—24,999	2	5	13	20	7	8	4		10	69
25,000—49,999	2	9	10	10	5	3	3	2	7	51
50,000—99,999	3	6	6	8	6	3	7	2	7	48

22. *Are you sponsored in any way by the public schools in your community?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	2	1	14	22	5	7	14	1	1	67
No	11	22	23	36	18	14	10	11	25	170
										<hr/> 237

A wide variety of forms of sponsorship by the schools were mentioned. Twenty-five directors indicated that school facilities were made available to them (for a fuller report on this, see items 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33). Seventeen directors reported that the schools shared direct costs of the program. No two programs had the same arrangement on this. Several examples:

School pays 40 per cent of program

School gives \$11,500 and facilities

School gives \$37,000

School pays director and assistant

School gives 40 per cent of director's salary and use of facilities

School pays one-third of operating budget

(See questions 24, 25, and 26 for fuller statement on this)

23. *If the schools do not formally sponsor your program, do they cooperate in other ways?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	8	20	25	44	18	14	10	10	24	173
No	2	1		1					2	6
										<hr/> 179

24. *Do they contribute to your annual budget?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	1	1	12	15	2	3	12		1	47
No	12	22	25	43	21	17	10	13	25	188
										<hr/> 235

If so, what proportion or amount? (stated in percentages of total budget)

0—19	17
20—39	14
40—59	11
60—79	2
80—99	
100	1

25. *Is this to support programs for school-age youth only?*

Yes 22

No 42

Other age groups?

Yes 47

No 2

26. *Summer or year-round?*

Summer only 9

Year-round 73

27. *If you operate under an advisory board or commission, is the school board represented on this?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	5	3	19	34	12	10	12	4	10	109
No	6	18	13	21	10	5	11	9	14	107

One member of school board sits ex officio on recreation board or commission 42

Two members of school board on recreation board 22

Superintendent of schools is ex officio member of recreation board 13

Two members of recreation board or commission are nominated or appointed by school board 4

By law, all five members of recreation commission are appointed by school board 2

Other scattered references are made to school teachers or administrators being appointed as representatives to the recreation board, or of being members by chance.

28. *If your program makes use of school facilities, please check appropriate boxes below:*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Gymnasium	10	20	39	52	22	21	22	9	23	218
Music room	5		17	15	10	6	9	1	6	69
Theatre/ auditorium	5	5	23	28	7	9	16	3	12	108
Swimming pool		3	14	14	6	5	11	1	1	55
Arts and crafts rooms	5		14	22	3	8	10	4	10	76
Outdoor areas	10	10	30	47	22	18	18	10	19	184
Others (suggested by respondents)										
Baseball, football fields		1	2	6	3		2		2	16
General indoor rooms			2	5	1		7	1	1	17

Recreation room; cafeteria	1	8	1		1	2	13
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29. *Tabulation of number of recreation facilities used by individual recreation programs.*

Use one facility	30	Use five facilities	33
Use two facilities	58	Use six facilities	15
Use three facilities	55	Use seven facilities	5
Use four facilities	36		

30. *Nature of charges for use of facilities (school) by recreation departments.*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
None	5	6	13	25	13	11	11	7	9	100
Janitorial overtime	3	5	10	18	4	3	5	3	14	65
All maintenance (heat, light, custodian)	2	1	5	3	1		1	2	2	17

In addition, twenty-seven respondents indicated the specific nature of charges, viewed either as rental fees or payments to cover expenses.

Examples:

\$500 per year (flat rate)	\$5 per night for lights
\$3,500 per year (flat rate)	\$15 for football game
\$1,000 per year (flat rate)	\$11 per hour for swimming pool
\$50 for use of theatre	\$5 per night for music room
Hourly charge: elementary school \$1 and \$1.50; junior high \$2 and \$2.50; senior high, \$4.	

Other respondents indicated such policies as "pay out of pocket costs"; "recreation department maintains outdoor school areas"; "reciprocal use of facilities without charge"; "obliged to hire gym supervisor from school staff"; "pay only when admission is charged."

31. *What problems do you encounter, in working with school administrators, in connection with use of their facilities?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
None: no major problems; co- operation very good	3	13	11	21	7	11	13	5	11	95
Scheduling diffi- culties; time limitations; cancellations	4	3	9	10	3	4	3	1	5	42

Supervision; damage to facilities; vandalism; over-protectiveness; maintenance problems	1	3	3	13	4	1	8	1	3	37
Difficulties with administrators; lack of cooperation and poor communication	4	4	4	5	4	1	3	2		27
Custodians fail to cooperate with outside groups	3		6	6	2	1			3	21
Very few problems; not serious		1	5	3	2	1	1		4	17
Fees high; excessive charges	1		1	5	1	2			3	13

32. *What guides or procedures are helpful in meeting such problems constructively?*

MS SE GL MA MIW PNW PSW SW NE Totals

Conferences and personal contacts with superintendents and school board; mutual planning; joint board memberships	4	6	10	17	11	3	5	2	8	66
Sell principals and board members on value of recreation; establish cooperative spirit; see school's point of view	3	3	13	11	1	2		2	3	38
Clearly established policies and written contracts and agreements	2	1	7	8	4	2	8		4	36

An effective recreation program; strict enforcement of rules; qualified personnel; maximum use of facilities granted; good supervision, early scheduling	2	1	6	8	1	1	1	1	21
Deal directly with superintendent			3	3	1		1		8
Make use of coaches and teachers in recreation program		1	2			1			4

33. *Have you, or other recreation professionals, been consulted or drawn into the planning of new schools or facilities, to ensure their being suitable for community recreation use?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	7	6	23	26	13	11	15	3	8	112
No	6	18	15	28	10	9	7	9	19	121

Numerous examples (approximately 60 references) are given of recreation directors acting as consultants in the planning and design of new school buildings and school additions, playgrounds, playfields, gymnasias, pools, and other outdoor facilities. Chiefly, this seems to be in the area of sports and games; other types of facilities are not mentioned.

34. *Do the public schools make use of facilities (parks, playgrounds, etc.) that are owned or operated by your department? If so, explain.*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	12	22	35	46	18	19	20	12	22	206
No		1	2	6	1				3	13

Specific types of facilities made available to the schools by municipal authorities include baseball or softball diamonds (69), park areas and playgrounds (59), tennis courts (39), pools (26), football fields (22), picnic areas and beaches (15), golf courses (10), skating rinks (9), stadia (5), centers (4), and recreation buildings (4). Only the last two suggest other than athletic uses or indoor social activities.

35. *If you offer adult recreation activities during the school year, is this related in any way to adult education courses sponsored by the schools?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		2	7	7	2	1	2		3	24
No	13	20	30	46	21	17	18	12	23	200

Sixteen respondents stated that an effort was made to coordinate offerings and avoid duplication; six indicated that they gave recreational emphasis to an activity, while the adult education classes emphasized the instructional or skill aspect.

36. *Is your recreation program for youth directly related, or does it cooperate in any way with school club programs or other school-sponsored recreation activities?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	3	17	23	33	12	8	15	6	13	130
No	8	6	14	21	9	9	8	7	13	95

Examples: There is cooperative scheduling and programing to avoid overlap and make sure that recreation activities supplement school program (51); recreation department cooperating with physical education department by offering clinics, supervision and coaching services, running tournaments and intramurals, use of facilities (30); recreation sponsoring dances and social activities in and for schools (12); recreation sponsoring club activities and afterschool programs (10); coordination between school student council and recreation teen council (5).

37. *Do you feel that your community's public schools do a good job of teaching leisure-time skills, and developing favorable attitudes toward recreation?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	6	7	20	31	11	12	18	5	12	122
No	7	12	8	14	10	5	4	5	10	75
Fair		1	6	5	1	1		3	2	19
Doubtful		2	3	3	1	1			1	11

Comments: The schools provide a good physical education program, teach useful skills (39); they fail to teach useful recreation skills and interests, have too much emphasis on varsity and team sports (32); they do teach skills and study leisure, have sound approach (20); place insufficient emphasis on recreation, are not aware of leisure education responsibility, show lack of understanding (14).

38. *What is the attitude of the school board or superintendent in your community toward recreation and leisure education as a concern of the schools?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Excellent	4	2	7	12	3	5	6		6	45
Good	3	10	20	26	9	11	15	6	11	111

Appendix B

Fair	1	3		2		1	1	8
Little help; lack of interest	2	4	5	1	1	1	4	21
Education is their function; recreation is the community's	3	5	2	7	4	1	1	27
Unknown, doubtful				3				4
Feels schools should take over recreation	1			1			1	3
<i>Has this changed in recent years?</i>								
Yes	75							
No	97							
Slightly	7							

In what way?

Comments: There seems to be increased cooperation and appreciation of recreation (36); there was slightly more cooperation and interest (11); recreation had gained status (4); the use of school buildings was easier to arrange (4).

39. *In general, do you feel that it is desirable for public school systems to take over major responsibility for conducting community recreation programs?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		1	9	6	3	3	3		1	26
No	13	19	26	47	17	14	20	12	20	188
Doubtful		1	2	1	2	1			1	8

40. *What are the advantages of such an arrangement?*

Availability of facilities, efficient use of community resources . .	69
Availability of personnel; year-round employment for teachers .	31
Better financial support for programs; better salaries	28
Better administration and control of program; more stability and continuity; better community relationships; avoid politics	14
Direct contact with youth and children; better youth program .	13
Higher standards, more professional attitude	5
No advantage; none	17

41. *What are its disadvantages?*

Schools have the primary purpose of education; recreation would be secondary; they have different philosophies; they have their hands full	82
------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----

Schools lack proper leadership; teachers are not equipped in recreation; a formal, academic atmosphere would be maintained	51
Program activities would be too narrow; age levels other than children would not be served; daytime needs would not be met	44
Lack of finances to support an effective program	34
Recreation is a separate program and should have its own facilities; recreation would lose its identity	24
School lacks needed facilities, particularly for daytime and outdoor activities	18
42. What kinds of recreation needs can a school system serve best?	
Games, athletics, sports	56
Providing facilities for municipal program	53
Teach leisure skills and creative interests	37
Cultural activities: art, drama, music	25
Activities for children and youth	19
Arts and crafts	12
Dances	9
After-school activities	8
All or most needs	7
Club and hobby groups	7
Adult education activities	4
43. What kinds are they usually not equipped to serve?	
Adult activities	42
Outdoor activities; park services	34
Community-wide programs	27
Senior citizens and retired	25
Social activities	17
Arts and crafts	13
Athletics	8
Youth program with continuity through age levels	7
Those out of school or in other schools (private or parochial)	5
All needs	4
Services for hospitals and the handicapped	3
44. In what sort of community (size, location, type) does it make sense for the schools to sponsor recreation?	
Low income or small (many specific suggestions given, such as under 10,000, under 5,000, etc.)	115
Rural, lacking public facilities, consolidated school districts	22
None	17

Appendix B

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If any, all 12

If don't have other recreation agencies 14

Large, urban 6

Where school is center of community activity; where geo-
graphical boundaries are the same; in one-school town 6

45. In what sort of community is it not appropriate?

In large, medium-size, or financially able communities 97

Where full-time recreation departments exist; where there is a
need for established, full-time program 23

It is appropriate in no community 8

46. Can you identify a community in your area in which the schools
have taken over the major responsibility for recreation?

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	Totals
Yes	1	5	21	19	7	2	7	1	5	68
No	8	15	12	27	10	13	11	12	19	127

47. Do you hire school teachers as leaders in your recreation program?

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	Totals
Yes	13	18	30	51	23	14	24	11	23	207
No		3		2	1	3		1	1	11
Qualified (summers only; rarely)		1	1	2	3	1		1		9

48. Do you feel that they are equipped to work in this field without spe-
cial training?

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	Totals
Yes	4	7	15	17	8	5	10	4	9	79
No	8	13	12	19	11	11	10	9	10	103
Some; depends on individual		2	8	16	3	2	3		8	42
Most are			3	5	2	1	1		2	14

Comments: Teachers are frequently used as recreation leaders in special areas, such as art or music (20); training institutes (three-day period most frequently mentioned) help to orient teachers to the recreation situation (17); they need special guidance and help (16).

Survey of School Sponsored or Co-Sponsored Recreation Programs

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WAS sent to the directors of 220 school sponsored, or co-sponsored recreation programs. These were drawn chiefly from listings in the *1961 Parks and Recreation Yearbook*, where the description of the responsible agency included a school board or school district. These were supplemented by programs in communities suggested by respondents to the first two questionnaires.

Completed questionnaires were received from the following districts and states:

<i>Southeast</i>		<i>Mid-Atlantic</i>		<i>Pacific Southwest</i>	
Alabama	1	Delaware	1	Arizona	1
Florida	1	New Jersey	3	California	20
South Carolina	1	New York	13	Utah	1
		Pennsylvania	7		
	<hr/> 3		<hr/> 24		<hr/> 22
<i>Great Lakes</i>		<i>Midwest</i>		<i>Southwest</i>	
Illinois	2	Colorado	3	New Mexico	2
Indiana	6	Iowa	2	Texas	3
Michigan	9	Missouri	1		
Minnesota	10				
Ohio	8				
Wisconsin	12				
	<hr/> 47		<hr/> 6		<hr/> 5
		<i>Pacific Northwest</i>		<i>New England</i>	
		Montana	1	Connecticut	3
		Oregon	3	Maine	1
		Washington	2	Massachusetts	1
			<hr/> 6		<hr/> 5

The total number of completed questionnaires was 118. No questionnaires were received from the Mid-South district; therefore, this district will not appear at all in the following tabulations.

The respondents classified themselves as follows:

Director or supervisor of recreation	56
Director, supervisor or consultant, health, physical education, and recreation	31
Superintendent or assistant superintendent of schools ..	21
Director of adult education and adult recreation	4
Director of community service, community or social centers, or youth services	4
Principal, or director of instruction ..	3

Population of School Districts or Communities Responding

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
0—4,999	1	4	1		1	1			8
5,000—9,999	2	7	1	1	2	1	1	1	16
10,000—24,999		8	8		1	6	3	1	27
25,000—49,999		12	5	3	1	4		1	26
50,000—99,999		4	4	1	1	4			14
100,000—249,999		5	5			3		1	14
250,000—499,999						1	1		2
500,000—999,999		2		1		1		1	5
1,000,000 plus		1				1			2
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	3	43	24	6	6	22	5	5	114

49. Identification of program. Is yours a

Separate municipal agency that receives support from a school board	8
Jointly operated municipal-school recreation program	40
Fully sponsored by a school board or district ..	66

Please explain the administrative arrangement

Note: It was not possible to precisely classify the responses without going into almost as many categories as there were programs reporting. However, some of the most common arrangements were these:

1. School board conducts recreation program for its own children and youth and to a minor degree for adults in the district, using either school funds allocated to this purpose, or the proceeds of special taxes. In smaller communities, the programs tended to be summer only; in larger communities, year-round. The director of the program tended to be the director of health, physical education, and recreation or, in many cases, the superintendent himself. In some cases, the program is controlled by a recreation board; more often, it is supervised by the superintendent.

2. A modification of the above is to have the school board conduct programs in areas where park services or municipal recreation services are not available, and to be fully or partially reimbursed by city or county for this function. One variation of this is the situation in which there is a cooperative agreement between the school board and the municipal recreation or park and recreation department, that the school will provide certain services (usually for children and youth) and the municipal authority will provide other services. They are still separate programs, although facilities may be reciprocally used and funds from one agency used to support the other's program.

3. In a number of jointly operated programs, a recreation board may be responsible for all public recreation services in the community, drawing funds from both the school system and city council, with representation of both on its commission or advisory council, and using both types of facilities. The director may either be an employee of the schools, the city, or jointly responsible to both.

4. In some cases, the municipality clearly runs the program, with the school contributing funds (often in the form of salaries for school personnel) and also use of facilities.

5. In a number of cases, particularly large cities or areas in which political subdivisions overlap each other, a number of different authorities may conduct public recreation programs side by side, with varying degrees of cooperation. Sometimes they may be under a single administrative head, with city, county, and public schools working together (as in Denver, Col.); with a county recreation and parks program affiliated with regional recreation councils and local schools (as in Baltimore County, Md.); or without being consolidated into a single program (as in Compton, Calif., where there are actually four separate agencies, all tax supported: Compton Union High School District, Compton City schools, city of Compton, and Compton Junior College). Another example is Philadelphia, Pa., where three separate agencies exist side by side (school board, department of recreation, and park commission) although they are all represented on a recreation coordination board and interchange facilities.

50. *About how long has your program been in existence in its present form?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
1—4 years		5	1			2	1		12
5—9	3	4	10	2		6			25
10—19		19	10	1	3	9	3	2	37
20 plus		18	2	3		6	1	3	33

51. *Do you serve directly under a superintendent of schools or principal?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	3	36	18	3	3	17	4	4	88
No		5	3	2		5	1		16
Qualified		1	1				1		3

In the majority of cases, a "yes" response (as amplified in the comments) meant that the superintendent was either the direct superior of the man in charge of recreation or, through the chain of command, his ultimate superior. A number of individuals described the relationship of the superintendent with the board of education on recreation matters; in most cases it appears to be a matter of "the superintendent recommends, and the school board approves." In several cases, it was indicated that the recreation department is considered a separate school department under the authority of the superintendent. In four cases, the recreation program is under the joint control of the superintendent and the city manager or under an advisory board with representation from both the board of education and city council.

52. *Do you have a recreation advisory committee with representation from the community at large?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		19	4	3		12	2	2	42
No	3	24	17	2	3	10	3	2	64
Qualified		1	1	1	1	1		1	6

Once again, there was no consistency or common formula. The following are examples:

Superintendent, plus members from city council and school board.

Plus, in some cases, city manager and other members at large.

Nine members: three from city council, three from school board, and three at large.

Five members: one school board member, four at large.

Recreation board, appointed by board of education.

Advisory committee: chairman appointed by mayor, two school board members, two park department members.

In one college community (Mid-Atlantic), two village representatives, two from board of education, two from state teachers college in town, two from engineering college in town, and two from township.

Advisory committee of city-wide agencies and of community council; or Chamber of Commerce advisory committee.

53. *What is the amount of the annual recreation budget?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
0—9,999	1	17	8	1	2	1	2	1	33
10,000—24,999	2	6	5	2	2	4	1	1	23
25,000—49,999		2	7	1	1	3	1	2	17
50,000—99,999		9	3	1		9	1		23
100,000—249,999		5	1			3		1	10
250,000—499,999		4		1		1			6
500,000—999,999									0
1,000,000 plus		2			1	2			5

54. *What proportion comes from the school board?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
(per cent)									
0	2	7		1	1				11
1—9		1					1		2
10—19						1			1
20—29		4	1	1		2	1		9
30—39		1	1		1	2			5
40—49		2	1			1			4
50—59	1	5	2		2	1			11
60—69		2	3			3		1	9
70—79		2				1		1	4
80—89									0
90—99						1			1
100		21	15	4	1	11	3	3	58

55. *Does it have a special tax source for recreation expenditures? If so, what?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	1	9		3		18			31
No	2	35	22	3	4	4	4	3	77

Examples: A special recreation tax, referred to as a "mill levy" or an "override tax" for community recreation purposes was mentioned by 29 respondents, particularly in California and several of the Great Lakes states. It is variously described as .5, .6, .8, etc., or as 5 cents to 10 cents per \$100 of assessed property value.

56. *If the recreation item is a regular part of the school budget, has it provoked special criticism or opposition at the time of budget hearings or public vote?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		6	3					1	10
No	1	34	19	6	4	23	3	4	94

Qualified (slight, or rarely)

3 1 2 6

Comments: Examples were given of school boards questioning whether school funds should go to recreation (4), whether the responsibility might not go to the city or park department (2), and of friction between the school board and city council regarding outlays (1). No specific example was given of the recreation item being cut, although one statement (PNW) in response to another question: "we do not have a recreation leader at this time; budget failed," suggests this.

57. *Over the past several years, has the recreation expenditure in your district or community risen, remained constant, or declined, in proportion to the over-all school budget?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Risen	1	27	14	3	2	12	2	2	63
Constant	2	13	5	3	3	10	1	3	40
Declined		6	3				2		11

Note: A number of respondents apparently first checked "risen" and then, after reading the phrase "in proportion to," changed their response to "remained constant." It is probable that others did not note this phrase and that the tally is therefore misleading.

58. *What proportion of your annual recreation budget comes from non-school sources?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
(per cent)									
0		15	9	2	2	9	2	3	42
1—9		2	2			4			8
10—19	1	4	2	1			1		9
20—29		3	1	1				1	6
30—39		3	1			2		1	7
40—49		1	1		1				3
50—59	1	2	4		1	1			9
60—69		3	1		1	1			6
70—79		3	1			1			5
80—89		2	1	1		2	1		7
90—99				1					1
100	1	6			1				8

59. *What sources?*

City government, general tax sources, board of public works,	
park board, borough or county governments	34
Fees, charges	23
State youth commissions	7

City booster clubs, community service groups (Lions, V.F.W., etc.)	6
Community Chest or United Fund	4

60. *Is your program primarily for school-age youth?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	3	33	21	5	4	19	5	2	92
No		13	2	1	1	4		3	24

61. *If you offer adult activities, about what proportion of the program is for this level?*

(per cent)	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
1—9	1	3	2	3		5	2		16
10—19	1	4		1	1	4			11
20—29	1	8	4		2	3	1		19
30—39		7				3	1		11
40—49		3				2			5
50—59		1	1	1				1	4
60—69			1						1
70—99									0
100								1	1

A number commented that adult programs are offered in the community, but not through our department.

62. *Is your adult education program linked in any way with adult education classes?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		4	4		1		1	2	12
No	2	22	10	3	4	17	1	1	60
Qualified		6	1			1			8

It is a separate department under the board of education . . . 14

We try to coordinate, keep close liaison, interchange facilities . . 6

We are combined in a single department; some activities co-sponsored 6

Same director, different activities 5

Adult class, when extended, becomes recreation group . . . 1

63. *What distinction is made between adult education and adult recreation?*

Adult education involves formal knowledge or vocational skills, while adult recreation is for personal health, enjoyment or social purposes	18
No stated distinction	11
Education is formal, recreation informal; adult recreation is considered informal adult education	7

Adult education receives state aid; adult recreation does not . . .	7
School handles adult education; city recreation department handles adult recreation	6
Adult education requires class fee; adult recreation rarely does	3

64. *Is your program completely or primarily summer-time?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	2	21	9	4	3	1	3		43
No	1	23	11	2	2	16	2	4	61

65. *If not, is it active for all age groups throughout the year?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		25	11	2	2	16	1	2	59
No	1	8	6		2	3			20

Comments:

Our summer program is more intensive	25
We carry on sports, social and cultural activities for all ages through the year	13
Our emphasis is on youth recreation throughout the year	12
Our program is heavy in summer, and after school and on Saturdays in the winter	10
We emphasize youth in summer and adults in winter	3

66. *Do you, either as a teacher or special resource person, work with groups of students or classes, in providing recreation activities during the school day?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		7	6		1	13	1		28
No	3	35	12	5	3	7	3	4	72

Examples:

<i>Examples:</i>	
Noon-time recreation for bus-serviced schools	5
Intramural and sports activities, connected to physical education program	4
Play days and field days	2
Club and canteen programs	3
Nature and science specialist in classroom science program	1
In addition, a number of respondents indicated that they were teachers during the daytime, conducting activities related to their recreation work (usually physical education). However, this could not be construed as recreation.	

67. *Does your program provide activities such as field trips, school camping, or other special events that are related to the curriculum?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		13	12		1	12	2	2	42
No	3	28	10	6	3	10	2	2	64

Examples:

- Field trips, camping, and day camping services 12
 Specific references to outdoor education and nature study 6
 In addition, there were a number of scattered references to hobby clubs, dance, music and sports activities, the presumption being that these were extensions of academic experiences.

68. *Do you cooperate with other community agencies (social service, "Y's," etc.) in providing joint recreation services?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	1	24	15	6	4	20	5	3	78
No	1	20	7		1	3		2	34

Examples:

- Cooperate with youth and recreational agencies in community; sponsor or co-sponsor clinics, in-service training, seminars; help with promotion 29
 Cooperate with city or township recreation or park programs; provide leadership, transportation, facilities, etc. 20
 Work with such agencies as Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A., Scouts, church groups, Lions, Kiwanis, Chamber of Commerce with direct program services as assistance 16

69. *Community recreation directors who make use of school facilities often find this a source of disagreement (making reservations, damage to property, etc.). Do you find this a difficult matter?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		2	3						5
No	1	42	21	6	5	20	4	4	103
Qualified			1			3		1	5

70. *What procedures do you follow in reserving and using school facilities?*

- There is no difficulty in obtaining use because of school sponsorship or co-sponsorship, and because school personnel are in charge 50
 We are in charge of scheduling of school facilities; recreation is placed in a priority directly behind actual class use; scheduling is carried out and permits issued at beginning of year or season 33
 System of careful supervision, before and after inventories, noting of damage, and prompt assignment of responsibility and reimbursement 5

71. If new school facilities have been built, have you or other recreation specialists been drawn into the planning?

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	2	26	15	3	4	17	1	3	72
No	1	13	5	3		3	1	1	27
Qualified			1			2	1	1	5

Comments:

As member of staff, am drawn into planning of physical facilities, including all-purpose rooms, gyms, storage areas, dressing rooms, rifle range, swimming pool, etc. 22
 All new schools built with idea of community use 3

72. In your program, do you make use of facilities or areas owned by non-school agencies, such as:

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Churches, "Y's," community centers	2	11	7	2	2	8	1	4	37
Facilities or areas owned by other governmental agencies (municipal, county, etc.)		28	12	5	4	10	2	3	64
Facilities owned by private or commercial concerns		10	7	4	1	8		2	32
None of these	1	14	6		1	8	2	1	33

Examples:

We have a working agreement with city for use of parks, rinks, pools, etc., in which we conduct program 36
 We use commercial bowling alleys 11
 We use private facilities for ball diamonds, tennis, and teen center 5
 We use county parks 3

73. Do other (non-school sponsored) recreation groups ever make use of school facilities through your assistance or coordination?

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes	2	33	17	5	5	22	4	4	92
No	1	8	8	1		1		1	20

Sixty-three specific references are made to the following types of non-school sponsored activities: Boy and Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., C.Y.O.'s, church and industrial and Little League baseball leagues, square dance clubs, archery groups, choral societies, little theatre groups, hobby groups and clubs, etc. Six respondents

mention that the school is increasingly becoming viewed as a community center, or civic center.

74. *Do you find difficulty in obtaining space for such groups as Golden Age clubs, because their meeting schedule interferes with the normal school day?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		6	2	2	2	1			13
No		16	8	2	2	13			41

Note: Without doubt, a number of those who responded "no" to question 74 did so because they had no such program service, and therefore experienced no difficulty. Others (below) indicated this specifically, or (if they did not reply) the answer was made evident because of responses elsewhere in the questionnaire.

Question not applicable; no such program service by us	60
They use other facilities; churches, Salvation Army, Y.W.C.A., municipal senior citizen's center, civic center, nursing home . .	20
We have available facilities: fieldhouse, community room, separate recreation room or building; we can make space available, especially in afternoon	13

75. *Is yours a full-time recreation responsibility?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		16	6	1	1	8			32
No		3	29	18	5	4	14	4	82

76. *If not, what proportion of your time is given to recreation?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
(per cent)									
None or no reply		1	4		1		1		7
0—19		6	3	2	2	1	1		15
20—39	1	2	3	2	1	7	1	2	17
40—59		4	3			5		2	14
60—79		2		1		1			4
80—100		3	1						4
Summers only	2	13	4				2	1	22

77. *What other responsibilities do you have?*

Teaching; teaching and/or coaching	34
Supervisor or director of department of health, physical education, and recreation in school system or school	28
School administration (superintendent or principal)	12
Various other school responsibilities (coordinating school nurses, handling school transportation, assigning facilities, counseling)	4
Adult education responsibility	3

78. Please describe your training or professional experience in the recreation field.

Experience and training as physical educator and coach, frequently accompanied by mention of extensive recreation experience. This includes a number of superintendents	42
Undergraduate or graduate study in recreation (including physical education majors who mention having taken joint majors, minor programs, or courses in recreation); degree in social work	33
No reply; assumption is that these people as school employees, have general college degree, or degree in education	25
Experience in recreation only reply given	12
General teaching degree or background	6

79. Are there other year-round recreation leaders employed in your program?

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		15	8		2	13	2		40
No.	3	23	15	6	3	9	2	4	65

80. How many full-time?

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
0	3	17	13	5	5	12	1	4	60
1		6	5			4	2		17
2—4		5				1			6
5—14		3				1			4
15—24						1			1
25—49		1							1
50 plus		1							1

81. How many part-time?

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
0	1								1
1—9		14	8	2	4	2			30
10—19	2	2	1			4			9
20—49		3	5	1		6	1		16
50—99		1	3	1		5		2	12
100 plus		16	2	1		4			23

82. What is the nature of their training and experience?

Teacher, or college undergraduate (usually described as in education)	34
Physical education teacher or coach	31
Other specialist teachers (art, music, etc.)	15

Varied requirement (recreation degree required for full-time or supervisor, less for others)	6
High school students, training in program	4

83. *In general, do you feel that school teachers are equipped to serve as recreation leaders, without special training?*

	SE	GL	MA	MIW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		15	9	1	3	5	3	1	37
No	1	18	11	3	2	11	1	2	49
Qualified		10	2	2		7		2	23

Comments:

We use physical education and other specialists; they are qualified	29
Depends on their experience and ability; some do well, others not	20
We must provide in-service training for all our leaders; with this, teachers frequently make good leaders	17
The problems, skills and techniques are quite different; teachers tend to teach formally, need to adjust to the voluntary situation	16
Elementary teachers are very good, particularly on the playground	10
We try to hire qualified recreation personnel but it is hard to get them on a part-time basis; teachers make the best supply because their schedule coincides with the need for recreation leaders	2
Their enthusiasm is left in the classroom	1
Can school teachers practice law or medicine without special training?	1

84. *Putting the question another way, do you believe that recreation is a separate profession from teaching, requiring its own specialized training and competence?*

	SE	GL	MA	MIW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	Totals
Yes		22	12	4	2	14	1	2	57
No		10	9	1	1	2		2	25
Qualified	2	14	3	2	2	6	3		32

They are separate professions, but involve related skills and can be coordinated	19
Training is necessary for the full-time person; this should be a separate profession in the community that can pay the bill, but most cannot	14

Recreation and education are closely allied; it is a continuation of the school day program	10
With in-service training, teachers become skilled recreation leaders	8

85. *The criticism is often made that when recreation is sponsored by the schools it tends to be viewed as a "second-class" or minor responsibility, rather than as a major community service and need. Would you comment on this with respect to your own situation?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	Totals
Agree		15	9	3		3		1	31
Disagree	2	15	10	1	4	13	2	3	50
Qualified		7	4	2	1	3	1	1	19

Comments:

This may be true in some cases, but we consider our program a major operation; we are not secondary; our program is "first class" 32

In this area it is regarded as secondary; all too true; school administrators (and/or school board) view as secondary to academic purposes; public lacks understanding 19

This can happen if program does not command respect through quality; it is what you make it; depends on director of department 9

We consider recreation a major need during the summer months; not a year-round responsibility 7

True; this community is unwilling to provide an adequate program; we need a year-round program and full-time director 5

This is true; we have a strong department and "fight" for our life every minute of the day; it is a constant struggle 2

True here, but excellent programs elsewhere make me believe in school-sponsored recreation 1

86. *Do your superintendent of schools and school board members view recreation as an important function, rather than secondary to the educational task of the schools?*

	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	Totals
Yes	1	29	12	3	4	13	3		65
No		6	7	2			1	4	20
Qualified		3	2	1		2		1	9

Comment: Afraid still secondary; it is important but secondary. . . 10

Note: Several respondents pointed out that the question was poorly worded, in that recreation might be viewed as an important function, but still be secondary to the academic educational task.

87. *Do they view it as contributing to the education of students?*

	SE	GL	MA	MIV	PNIV	PSIV	SW	NE	Totals
Ycs	2	37	15	4	4	17	4	5	88
No		1							1
Qualified		4	4				2		10

Comments:

- Fine cooperation from administration; they support it strongly; designed to complement education wherever possible 20
- It is important but not as important as other responsibilities . . 10
- No help from the board or superintendent at any time; they consider it a necessary evil 6
- Divided opinion; the superintendent rates recreation high; the board does not (and vice versa) 4
- Making many converts but must keep at it; a constant struggle 2

88. *Based on what you may know of community recreation programs run by recreation departments or park and recreation commissions, please compare your program to theirs, mentioning advantages and disadvantages, as well as scope of program.*

- Compares favorably with others in area; compares favorably considering size of our community 38
- We can offer greater variety of program in suitable facilities at a much more economical figure than could either agency acting separately (this is a joint sponsorship); we have eliminated competition for the tax dollar; the investment in facilities is too great for duplication; this helps recreation become a total community effort; the school becomes a focal point of community life 26
- This plan has the advantage of coordinating with the school's program; we have direct contact with youth, better control, discipline, supervision; teacher develops better rapport with youth 18
- Our program is inadequate in content and organization; we need full-time staff and better facilities 13
- There is no basis for comparing us with other communities in region; we are a summer program only 12
- Elected school officials (school board members) are more intelligent and supportive in general than appointed committees; the school board is more professional than city council in hiring; the school system is outside the realm of city patronage and politics 12
- There is a disadvantage in not having specially designed recreation facilities; we are unable to spend money to improve property not owned by school; we cannot fight for own budget 4

Survey of School Administrators

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WAS sent to school superintendents and supervising principals in those communities or school districts which had already responded (through the recreation director) to an earlier questionnaire. Its purpose was twofold:

1. To cross-check some of the details of sponsorship, financial support, use of facilities, and so on, that appeared in the earlier responses.
2. To learn the attitudes of school administrators regarding responsibility for community recreation and the leisure education function, and to see whether this varied markedly, depending on whether the administrator *had* such a responsibility at present.

The first group of questionnaires went to 227 superintendents or supervising principals in communities that had responded to Survey B. In these communities, the schools predominantly *did not* play a major role in the sponsorship of recreation. In reply, 155 completed questionnaires were received. The key letter D is attached to the responses from this group.

The second group of questionnaires was sent to 118 superintendents and supervising principals in communities or school districts that had responded to Survey C, and that *did* hold a major responsibility for recreation sponsorship. From this group, 73 completed questionnaires were received. The key letter E is attached to these responses.

GROUP D—NONSPONSORS OF RECREATION

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	Totals
Population										
0—999				1						1
1,000—4,999				1					2	3
5,000—9,999		1	4	6	2			2	2	17
10,000—24,999	2		8	12	5	5	3	2	7	44
25,000—49,999	1	4	8	9	6	3	2	1	4	38
50,000—99,999		4	4	9	2	1	4		5	29

100,000—249,999	2	1	1		2			3	1	10
250,000—499,999	1	1	1	1	1		2			7
500,000—999,999				1		2	1	2		6
1,000,000 plus			1							1
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	6	11	27	40	18	11	12	10	21	155

GROUP E—SPONSORS OF RECREATION

MS SE GL MA MW PNW PSW SW NE Totals

<i>Population</i>										
0—999			1				2			3
1,000—4,999			6	2				1		9
5,000—9,999			1	1	2	1	3			8
10,000—24,999			4	6	2		4		1	17
25,000—49,999			9	4	3					16
50,000—99,999	1		5	2			1	1		10
100,000—249,999			1	1	1		1			4
250,000—499,999		2								2
500,000—999,999			1						1	2
1,000,000 plus			1	1						2
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1	2	29	17	8	1	11	2	2	73

89. As a matter of principle, do you feel that the conduct and/or support of community recreation programs should be the responsibility of the public schools?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	50	38
No	88	19

90. Do you feel that the schools are as well-equipped to do this job as municipal recreation or park and recreation departments or commissions?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	58	40
No	63	11

91. As a corollary of the above, do you believe that recreation leadership and administration is a separate profession, which requires its own specialized training?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	8	15
No	56	32

92. *Turning to an allied concern, do you believe that one of the important goals of education is or should be to provide students with leisure skills, habits, and attitudes?*

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	130	58
No	12	1
Somewhat	3	

Or, do you feel that your task is to focus on the academic growth of students, and that the home, or other community agencies, should provide social and recreational opportunities?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	22	4
No	17	13
Somewhat		2

93. *Has your opinion shifted at all in recent years, as a result of the increased academic emphasis in the schools?*

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	15	7
No	109	40
Somewhat	2	1

94. *Are there perceptible pressures from parents or parents' groups on this issue?*

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	29	21
No	81	24
Somewhat		1

95. *If you feel that leisure education is an important function of the school, is this achieved in your situation through:*

Co-curricular or "allied" activities?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	81	36
No	0	2

Integration of leisure education with the academic phase of the curriculum?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	20	12
No	3	2

Or a combination of both?

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	65	34
No	1	1

In the comments, a number of examples were given of school activi-

tics which readily lend themselves to integration with recreation or leisure education. These included physical education and athletics, instrumental and vocal music, art, clubs and guidance programs, dramatics, industrial arts, writing and publications.

96. *In your school, are certain "academic" subjects approached with their leisure education outcomes a major concern of the teacher?* (Note: It was the intent of the questioner that the word "academic" apply to all courses which are required, or taken for credit, in the curriculum. Most respondents understood it in that way, although a few commented they used the word to designate science, languages, etc.)

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	48	24
No	65	26
Minor concern	2	

Numerous examples were given, similar to those cited for question 92. Included also were social studies, science education, foreign languages, and mathematics.

97. *Do you feel that certain recreation experiences may contribute to the academic growth of students? Which?*

	(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Yes	113	51
No	4	2

Examples: sports and games; fine and industrial arts; music; all recreational experiences; English, reading, and writing; dramatics; science clubs; activities requiring eligibility (acceptable academic grades) for participation; and a variety of other activities.

General comments at the end of the questionnaire were the following:

(D) Nonsponsors	(E) Sponsors
Although school system conducts extensive summer recreation program, they don't consider themselves as major sponsors.	Favors extensive use of school buildings for recreation programs.
It is essential that school systems and municipalities cooperate in jointly providing good recreation programs for youth.	Favors N.E.A. taking active role in furnishing guidance to school boards and administrators, in conduct of recreation programs.
The chief problem with respect to leisure education is that educators place great faith in generalized statements of goals, and exert too little effort to work toward results.	School recreation should be much broader than games and athletics; personnel assignments should clearly separate physical education and recreation.

Survey of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WAS sent to the state directors of health, physical education, and recreation in 50 states, plus the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Where no state director is employed, it was sent to other state education department officials, who have been designated as liaison between the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, and their state education department. Of the total number of 53 questionnaires sent out, 47 were returned, from the following districts and territories:

Midsouth 5, Southeast 4, Great Lakes 6, Mid-Atlantic 4, Midwest 8, Pacific Northwest 3, Pacific Southwest 4, Southwest 4, New England 6, Hawaii, Virgin Islands, and Puerto Rico 2.

98. *Is there specific legislation in your state, empowering or enabling school districts to operate community centers, or to sponsor or co-sponsor (in cooperation with other municipal agencies) programs of public recreation?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MIW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	H,VI, &PR	Totals
Yes	3	1	5	2	3	2	3	1		1	21
No	1	3	1	2	5	1	1	3	6	2	25
No reply	1										1

99. *Is there a special taxing power granted in your state to school districts, to support community recreation services or programs?*

	MS	SE	GL	MA	MIW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE	H,VI, &PR	Totals
Yes			3	2	3		1				9
No	4	4	3	2	5	3	3	4	6	3	37
No reply	1										1

Note: The specific states that responded "yes," were California, Indiana, Michigan, New Jersey, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Wisconsin, and Kansas.

100. *About what percentage of the school districts in your state either sponsor or co-sponsor (in the sense of taking a major responsibility for) community recreation programs? If you do not have accurate figures, please indicate that it is a rough estimate.*

(per cent)		Totals
0—9	Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Texas, Virgin Islands, West Virginia	15
10—19	Alabama, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Nebraska, Ohio, Rhode Island, Washington	8
20—29	Louisiana, South Carolina, Virginia	3
30—39	Kansas, Tennessee	2
40—49	Montana, Vermont	2
50—59	Iowa, Utah	2
60—69	Minnesota, New Mexico	2
70—79	Wisconsin	1
80—89	California, Pennsylvania	2
100	Florida	1

Note: Fourteen respondents indicated that they were offering rough estimates, and nine respondents did not reply to this question.

101. *Does this seem to be a growing trend, declining trend, or remaining about the same?*

	H,VI,									Totals
	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SW	NE & PR	
Growing trend	2	1	4	2	2		3	2	1	17
Declining trend	1									1
Remaining about the same	3	2	3	2	4	1	1	1	5	22

Note: Eight respondents did not reply to this question. Tennessee gave two responses—that it was a growing trend in small school districts, and declining in large school districts. Both were tabulated.

102. What is your personal view, regarding school authorities' taking major responsibility for community recreation?

	H,VI,										Totals
	MS	SE	GL	MA	MW	PNW	PSW	SIW	NE	&PR	
Strongly favor	3	2	3	2	2		3	4	3		22
Moderately favor	1	1	2		2					1	7
No opinion										1	1
Moderately disapprove									2		2
Strongly disapprove											0
Depends on circumstances in individual community	2	1	1	1	2	3	2		2	1	15

Note: Two states gave responses with two views. Arizona checked both "strongly favor" and "depends on circumstances." Connecticut expressed "moderate disapproval" and "depends on circumstances." Both views were tabulated in each case. In general, response to this question indicates strong support of school recreation sponsorship. It must be recognized that the individuals responding have a primary concern in most cases with physical education, and reflect dominant views in that field. Two states did not respond to this question.

103. Does your state department of education (or your particular section or division) have an official policy in this matter?

In response, the majority of states (35) indicated that there was no official policy for or against school recreation sponsorship. Those replying affirmatively (12) included California, Florida, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, Utah, Virgin Islands, Virginia.

Note: Based on respondents' replies to earlier questions, these policies may be assumed to be favorable in the main. Nine had expressed strong support, two "moderate support," and one "depends on circumstances."

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